

A HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED
STATES



WADDY THOMPSON



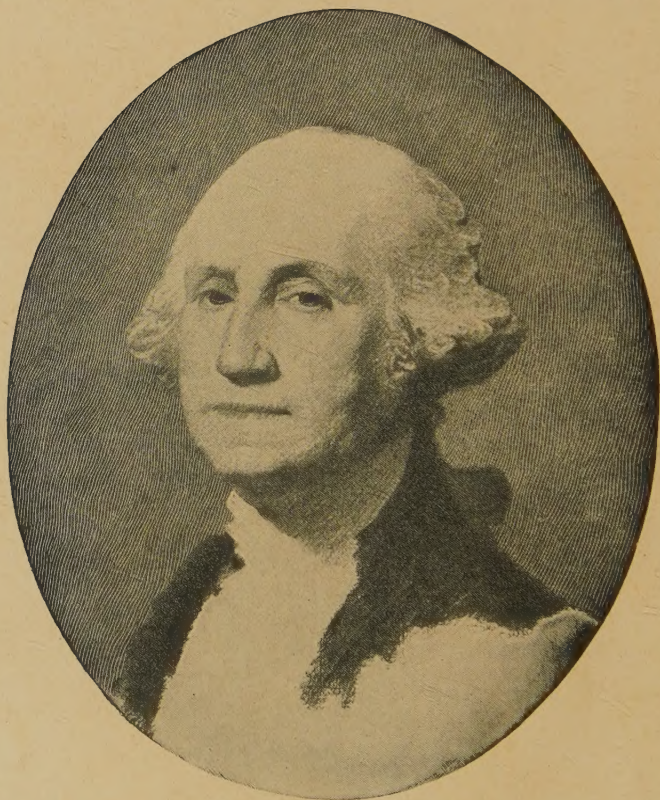


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George Washington

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

WADDY THOMPSON



GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES

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TO

THOMAS CLARKSON THOMPSON, JR.

PREFACE

THE chief event in American history is the war between the states. Its causes, having their beginning before the formation of the Union, exerted a strong influence upon the early stages of the country's development. Its consequences are of the greatest magnitude.

Many years had to follow the close of the conflict before it was possible for an American to look upon its causes and its results without passion or prejudice. But the country has, at length, become united in sentiment as well as in name. The patriotism exhibited in the war with Spain — patriotism that recognized no point of the compass — showed that the last vestige of sectionalism has passed away.

The purpose of this book is to present the history of the United States in such a way that the pupils who study it may become proud of an American heritage. With prejudice eliminated from the account of the old sectional controversies, the minds of the children of a reunited country may be more readily directed toward the study of the marvelous progress of America. With this object in view, considerable stress has been laid upon the achievements of peace, which, after all, should have the foremost place in history.

For many valuable suggestions the author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to D. F. Houston, President of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas ;

D. D. Wallace, Professor of History and Economics in Wofford College, South Carolina; Rt. Rev. Thomas F. Gailor, Bishop of the diocese of Tennessee, and James W. Thomas, Esq., of Cumberland, Md.; and to his publishers and their advisers. The author esteems it his good fortune that the part of his manuscript relating to the Civil War was reviewed by General H. V. Boynton of the Federal Army, and General John B. Gordon of the Confederate Army, for their intimate knowledge of that gigantic struggle was of great help toward rendering an accurate and impartial account of the war. He desires also to acknowledge his indebtedness to Miss Jessie Muse, of the Atlanta public schools, for her efficient aid in adapting the text to school use.

WADDY THOMPSON.

ATLANTA, GEORGIA.

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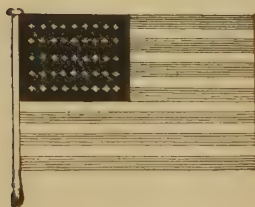
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A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

PART I.—DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION 1492-1609

B.W.

CHAPTER I

THE OLD WORLD AND THE NEW

1. The World before America was Discovered. — The part of the world in which we live, the Western Hemisphere, is often called the "New World," and the other part, the Eastern Hemisphere, the "Old World." Until the year 1492, civilized people lived only in the Eastern Hemisphere. They had no knowledge of North America or South America, and therefore, when they found these continents, they found a world new to them. Early conditions.

Even as late as the middle of the fifteenth century little was known of the Old World itself except Europe, the western part of Asia, and the northern shore of Africa. The Mediterranean Sea, the center of the known world, was the highway of commerce. The boldest seamen feared to sail farther to the west than Iceland.¹ They

¹ Icelanders had made settlements in Greenland. Iceland is much nearer to Greenland than to any point in Europe. Icelanders are Norsemen, or Northmen, a race that also inhabits Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Their

did not know where the broad Atlantic ended. They thought it was filled with monsters, and they called it the "Sea of Darkness."



TRADE ROUTES TO THE EAST.

The Norsemen.

bold sea-rovers, or vikings, as they called themselves, were as much at home on water as on land. In the year 876, a viking from Iceland was driven in his ship by storms to a strange land to the westward. About a century later (986), Eric the Red, with a party of settlers from Iceland, came to this strange land, which he called Greenland. The Norse colony continued for more than four hundred years and then disappeared. What became of it is a mystery. Ruins of its churches and houses are still to be found. The history of the Norsemen is told us in their records which they call sagas. Unfortunately much that is only tradition has crept into these records, and it is difficult to separate truth from fiction. The sagas state that Leif Ericson, the son of Eric the Red, visited land to the southwest of Greenland about the year 1000. He called the country Vinland on account of the quantity of grapes found. Many believe that the Vinland of the sagas was on the coast of what we now call New England. However, the discovery made no difference. It never became known over Europe, and was almost forgotten by Icelanders themselves. They thought Greenland was a part of Europe.

2. **The Far East.** — People had a vague knowledge of the eastern part of Asia which was called India. From ancient times trade had been carried on with India, and had become very important for all Europe. From India came silks, cashmeres, muslins, spices, ivory, diamonds, sapphires, and pearls. The Italian cities, Genoa and Venice, bustled with the coming and going of ships, for it was mainly through these cities that trade from the East reached the rest of Europe. Genoa sent its vessels to Constantinople for Eastern products brought there overland by caravans. Venice sent its ships to Cairo for cargoes coming up the Red Sea. At these points Europeans met traders from the East who told marvelous tales of their lands.

Early trade
with India.



A CARAVAN, LADEN WITH MERCHANDISE,
CROSSING THE DESERT.

Now and then a merchant seeking fortune, or a priest wishing to spread the Christian religion, had reached some distant part of Asia, and had brought back glowing accounts of beautiful and populous cities and of lands rich in gold and precious stones and fragrant with delicious spices. But in 1365 the semibarbarous Turks, beginning to seize one point after another along the routes of trade, threatened to cut off all communication between Europe

A new route
needed.

and Asia. As the loss of the Eastern trade would have been a calamity to Europe, people began to think of finding an ocean route to India.

3. **Prince Henry the Navigator.**—In seeking a water route to India, effort was first made to sail around Africa. But there were many difficulties to be overcome because everybody was ignorant of geography. It was generally believed that the equator could not be crossed because the heat was so intense that it would burn up any one who made the attempt. It was also supposed that Africa extended to the end of the world, or else was so joined to Asia in the far-off, unknown parts, that a ship could not sail to India. Fortunately there was a prince of Portugal, who was deeply interested in the progress of science, and who wished to increase the knowledge of geography by explorations. Moreover, he was good as well as wise; while he hoped to add to the glory of Portugal by discovering new lands, he sincerely desired to convert the heathen of those lands to Christianity. He spent so much time and money in sending out expeditions to explore the seas that he was called Prince Henry the Navigator. His seamen pushed their ships farther and farther down the western coast of Africa. By 1471 the Portuguese had crossed the equator.

The African
coast
explored,
1418-1471.

4. **Christopher Columbus.**—~~Prince~~ Prince Henry's zeal had attracted to Portugal many able navigators and geographers, among whom was Christopher Columbus, a native of Italy. Columbus became convinced that the shortest route to India was westward across the Atlantic Ocean. He believed that the world was round, and that by sailing toward the west he would come to the east again. His idea that the world was round was not original, for some of the learned men of ancient times as well as many of the

wise men of his own time held the same belief, yet it was still a matter of dispute. Almost all the people thought the world flat; and if told that it was round, they asked how men could walk with their heads down, and how rain could fall upward.

Columbus would sail westward.

5. **Columbus before Kings.** ^X Columbus needed money to buy and equip vessels with which to make a westward voyage to India. Prince Henry had died, so he asked aid of the king of Portugal, who referred the matter to a council of learned men. It did not occur to these men that there might be land, such as the American continent, in the way.

In Portugal.

They gave it as their opinion that even if it were possible to reach India by sailing westward, the route would be too long.¹ Nevertheless, the king secretly sent out ships to discover for himself



MAP OF THE WORLD AS KNOWN TO COLUMBUS
UNKNOWN KNOWN

the route suggested by Columbus. The attempt failed, and when Columbus learned of the king's treachery, he felt outraged and at once left Portugal.

¹Columbus next sought aid from Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. These sovereigns were busily engaged in war

In Spain.

¹In the matter of distance, the learned men were correct. In his argument for the western route Columbus made three errors: (1) He did not allow for another continent's being in the way; (2) he thought the earth much smaller than it is; and (3) he thought that Asia extended farther around the earth than it does. According to his calculations, Japan was in the Atlantic Ocean, and nearer to Europe than are the West Indies. But for these errors, Columbus would very likely never have started on his voyage.

with the Moors, who still held parts of Spain, so they also referred his project to a council of learned men who would not be convinced by his arguments. Through many years he still pleaded his cause, frequently suffering poverty as well as the taunts and ridicule of those who looked upon him as a dreamer. At length, despairing of success in Spain, he was about to set out for France to ask aid of the king of that country, when Isabella consented to consider the matter.

The queen and the sailor came to terms. It was agreed that Columbus and his heirs should have the rank of admiral and viceroy of all lands he should discover, and that he should receive a part of any profits resulting from his discoveries. The rest of the profits were to go to Isabella, who, it is said, pledged her crown jewels in order to raise the money for the expenses of the voyage.

× 6. **The Spirit of Columbus.** — The best ships then in use were small and clumsy and unfit for any greater purpose than making voyages along the coast. What Columbus offered to do was truly astounding to the men of his time. Even those who shared his belief that the earth was round could not be sure of it. Some said that he might be wrong, and that if the earth should prove to be flat, the voyage to the end of the world would take so many years that one could hardly hope to get back. Scoffers declared that if the earth were really round, the voyage could not be made, since a ship in going or else in returning must sail uphill. Ignorant and superstitious men asserted that dragons breathing fire, serpents with many heads, and other terrible creatures swarmed in the Atlantic, and that they would devour any crew that ventured into that unknown sea.

Yet Columbus was more firmly fixed than ever in the

Columbus
and Isabella,
1492.

How the
people
predicted
failure.

belief that he could sail westward to the shores of Asia. He had held to his purpose so long in spite of trial and disappointment, that he had come to believe that heaven was directing him; and he vowed to convert the heathen in the lands he should win and to use his share of the profits for rescuing the Holy Sepulchre from the Mohammedans who held possession of Jerusalem.

The spirit of
Columbus.

7. Columbus sets Sail. — Three ships, called caravels, were secured, the *Santa Maria*, the *Pinta*, and the *Niña*.



A CARAVEL OF COLUMBUS.

After the model shown at the Columbian Exposition, Chicago, 1893.

One would hardly dare to cross the ocean in such vessels nowadays. To man the ships for the perilous voyage, debtors had been relieved of their debts and prisoners released from jail; and with ninety men in all, Columbus, on August 3, 1492, set sail from Palos in southern Spain. The ships loosed their cables amid the prayers and wailings of the people on shore, who had little hope of seeing the sailors again. The fleet was hardly out of sight of land before the men themselves began to regret their rash-

The
departure,
August 3,
1492.

ness, and as the little ships sailed farther and farther westward, discontent grew into terror. But Columbus kept a brave heart, and would not turn back. Many anxious days and nights, many weary weeks passed. The men said one to another that they should never get back home.



LANDING OF COLUMBUS, EARLY MORNING, OCTOBER 12, 1492.

After the picture by Dioscora Puebla, the Spanish artist.

and it seemed as though nothing could prevent their rising in mutiny. Still Columbus sailed on.

The
discovery,
October 12,
1492.

8. Columbus Lands.—At last, early on the morning of October 12,¹ 1492, land was sighted. It was one of the Bahama group of the West India Islands.² Columbus

¹ October 12, according to the Old Style of reckoning time; October 21, according to the New Style.

² It has never been determined which of the Bahamas Columbus first sighted. The honor is claimed for more than one of the islands.

landed and took possession of the island in the name of Queen Isabella. The crew were overjoyed at the prospect of becoming rich quickly, and threw themselves at his feet to ask his forgiveness. They were watched by a crowd of natives who were unlike any people the Spaniards had ever seen.

Columbus believed that certain signs made by the natives meant that gold was to be found in countries to the south, and he thought that Asia must lie in that direction. He set sail again, and soon arrived at the great island now called Cuba, which he thought was the continent of Asia. Cuba. Guided by the natives farther toward the southeast, he reached the island of Hayti, which he took to be Japan. Hayti. To this island he gave the name of La Espagnola (Hispaniola), or "Spanish land." There he decided to return to Spain and report his discovery.

After a stormy voyage in which he narrowly escaped shipwreck, Columbus landed at Palos—the port from which he had sailed—on March 15, 1493. The people The return. who had despaired of his return now welcomed him with joy, and were ready to believe with him that a western route to Asia had been found. In triumph, Columbus sought the king and queen. He showed many curiosities, among them some of the natives of the new lands. He called them Indians because all of eastern Asia, including China and Japan, was then known as India. Ferdinand and Isabella received Columbus with honor.

9. Second and Third Voyages of Columbus. — The report that Columbus had found the Indies by a short route across the Atlantic caused intense excitement in Spain. The king and queen immediately made plans to secure the wealth of the country, and to convert the heathen. When a fleet was fitted out for Columbus to make another voy-

age, there was no difficulty in getting men to go with him. Sons of the most distinguished families in Spain crowded upon his vessels, eager to seek their fortunes in the Indies, the land of untold wealth.

**Second
Voyage, 1493.**

Columbus sailed on his second expedition with seventeen vessels and about fifteen hundred men. On arriving at Hispaniola, he built a town, which he named Isabella, in



MAP OF THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS.

honor of the queen who had befriended him. He explored neighboring islands, and could not understand why he failed to find the wonderful cities of Asia. Meanwhile the colony on Hispaniola did not prosper. Men who had come there hoping to obtain wealth quickly were disappointed. They quarreled among themselves, turned the natives against them by their cruelty, and then blamed Columbus for all their troubles.

**Unfortunate
conditions in
Hispaniola,
1494-1496.**

Columbus returned to Spain to explain the condition of affairs in the colony. His sovereigns received him graciously, and in 1498 sent him on a third voyage. This time he did not steer directly for Hispaniola, but turned his ships farther southward in the hope of passing around China and reaching India itself (Hindustan). He found land, but it was part of what is now known as South America. Though Columbus knew that he had come upon a continent, yet he still hoped that it was joined to Asia or separated from it by only a narrow strait. Sickness compelled him to abandon his explorations and return to Hispaniola.

10. Columbus sent Home in Chains. — Misfortunes now came fast upon Columbus. On arriving at Hispaniola, he found that in his absence the condition of the colony had gone from bad to worse. There was rebellion among the colonists, and there was war with the Indians. A man whom the Spanish government had sent out to make investiga-



Third
voyage, 1492

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

From the bust at Pavia.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS was born at or near Genoa, Italy, about 1446; died at Valladolid, Spain, in 1506. His parents were wool-combers, yet he was given a fair education. At the age of fifteen he began his life upon the sea. He engaged in some of the fights between the ships of the rival cities of Genoa and Venice. When not at sea he employed his time in making maps and charts, and reading everything relating to navigation that came within his reach. He died in poverty. His body was removed from Valladolid to Seville, where it rested until about 1541, when it was carried to Santo Domingo, Hayti, and interred in the cathedral. In 1796 a coffer, supposed to contain the remains of Columbus, was taken to Havana, Cuba. In 1898 the coffer was carried to Spain. Many now believe that a mistake was made, and that the ashes of the great discoverer yet lie in the cathedral at Santo Domingo.

Columbus
Deposed,
1500.

tion of affairs, and take charge of the colony if necessary, had declared himself governor. He put Columbus in chains, and sent him back to Spain. The sight of the faithful discoverer in irons aroused the sympathy and indignation of the Spanish people. The queen ordered his immediate release. Once more he was promised all his rights in the Indies, but the promise was not kept. ✕

Fourth
voyage, 1502.

11. The Fourth Voyage of Columbus. His Death. — In 1502 the Spanish government sent Columbus on a fourth voyage of discovery. The Pope, who was more powerful than any king, had divided the world in half, giving to Portugal all heathen lands east of a certain line, and to Spain all such lands west of the line. Both nations had accepted the division, and had agreed not to interfere with each other's explorations. The fact that the Portuguese had at last reached India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, made Spain more desirous than ever to complete the discovery of the western route to India. So Columbus searched the coast of Central America and Panama for the strait which he supposed lay between what he called Asia (Cuba) and his new continent (South America). Disappointed again, he returned to Spain in 1504, and died in Valladolid in 1506. The great discoverer never knew that he had found a new world.

Death of
Columbus,
1506.

The Cabots
and their
discoveries.

12. The Voyages of the Cabots. — Now that Columbus had led the way, other navigators were not slow to cross the Atlantic. The first to see the mainland of North America was John Cabot, an Italian in the English service. He sailed with a single vessel in 1497, landed, and claimed the country for the king of England. The next year, accompanied by his son Sebastian, he crossed a second time to North America. The Cabots visited the coast somewhere between Cape Breton and Labrador.

They told of having seen great quantities of fish. England did not follow up these voyages, however, because it was thought that the Cabots had found only a cold, bleak part of Asia. What England wanted was India, the land of spices and precious stones. It was not until many years later that the voyages of the Cabots assumed importance. Then England cited them as the basis of her claim to North America.

What England thought of the discoveries made by the Cabots.

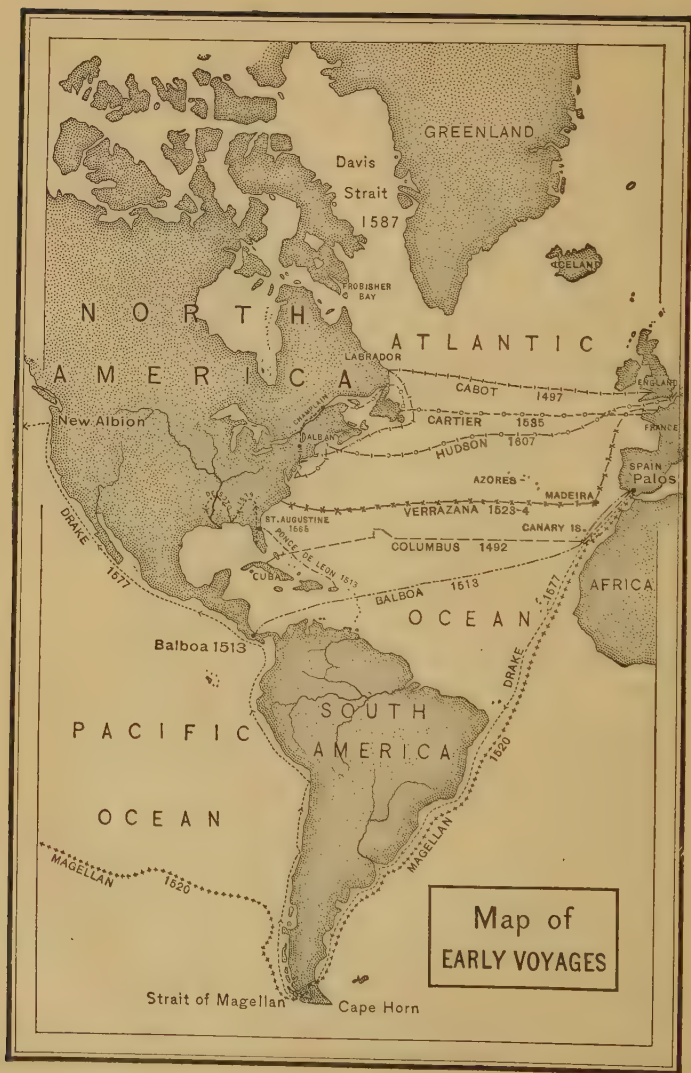
13. How America received its Name.—Americus Vesputius, an Italian, whose name in his native language was Amerigo Vespucci, made voyages across the Atlantic. In two of these voyages (1501-1504) he followed the long coast line of Brazil, in South America. In writing to his friends he described the lands that he had seen, and his letters were translated and printed in various languages. The part of South America already discovered by Columbus lay above the equator, where Asia was supposed to be. Vesputius explored land far below the equator, in a region where no one had dreamed that land existed. Consequently,



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

After the portrait in the possession of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

AMERIGO VESPUCCI, in Latin, Americus Vesputius, was born in Florence, Italy, in 1451; died in Seville, Spain, in 1512. His family was wealthy and he received a good education. About 1490 he removed to Seville, and there became engaged in fitting out expeditions for the sea. He equipped the fleet for the third voyage of Columbus. It was thought for many years that Vesputius saw the mainland of North America before Cabot, but there is now little doubt that the honor of discovering the continent belongs to Cabot. In 1508 Vesputius was appointed "pilot major" of Spain. The duties of this office, which he held until his death, were to collect descriptions of countries discovered, to draw maps and charts, and to superintend the appointment of pilots.



in the confused minds of the geographers of that time, it was thought that Columbus had found Asia, and Vespucci had discovered a "New World." In 1507 a professor in a university in an obscure German town published a small book on geography. He divided the world into the three parts already known for a long time, Europe, Asia, and Africa, and then added as a "fourth part" the region described by Vespucci. He suggested that this "fourth part, having been discovered by Amerigo," be called America. The suggestion met with favor. The name, given first only to Brazil, was gradually extended to the continent of South America and then to the continent of North America. Thus a mistake gave to Vespucci an honor that rightfully belonged to Columbus.

The "fourth part of the world" called America.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

1. THE WORLD BEFORE AMERICA WAS DISCOVERED.
2. THE FAR EAST. — Trade with India; goods; the overland route; communication threatened; result.
3. PRINCE HENRY THE NAVIGATOR. — A water route to India; Prince Henry's explorations; effect.
4. CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS. — Shortest route to India; shape of the world.
5. COLUMBUS BEFORE KINGS. — Treachery of Portugal; Spain gives aid; terms of contract.
6. THE SPIRIT OF COLUMBUS. — Difficulties of the voyage; faith of Columbus.
7. COLUMBUS SETS SAIL. — Ships; crew; danger of mutiny.
8. COLUMBUS LANDS. — Discoveries; settlement at Hispaniola; return to Spain.
9. SECOND AND THIRD VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS. — Effect of discoveries on Spain; Hispaniola; third voyage; South America reached.
10. COLUMBUS SENT HOME IN CHAINS.
11. THE FOURTH VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS: DEATH. — Division of the world; Portuguese route to India; effect on Spain; Columbus disappointed in hope of western route.
12. THE VOYAGES OF THE CABOTS. — North American discoveries; judged unimportant.
13. HOW AMERICA RECEIVED ITS NAME. — South America visited; Amerigo Vespucci honored.

CHAPTER II

THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN

Origin of the
Indian.

14. Origin of the Indian. — Though the great discoverer had not found India, he had found a new world and a new race. The name "Indian," which Columbus gave to this new race because he thought that he had reached India, remains the name of the race to-day. No one knows where the Indians came from; doubtless they have lived in America for thousands of years.¹

Physical
traits.

Indians are usually tall and erect. Their complexion is of a reddish brown or copper color. They have high cheek-bones, small, deep-set eyes, straight black hair, and little or no beard.

Dress.

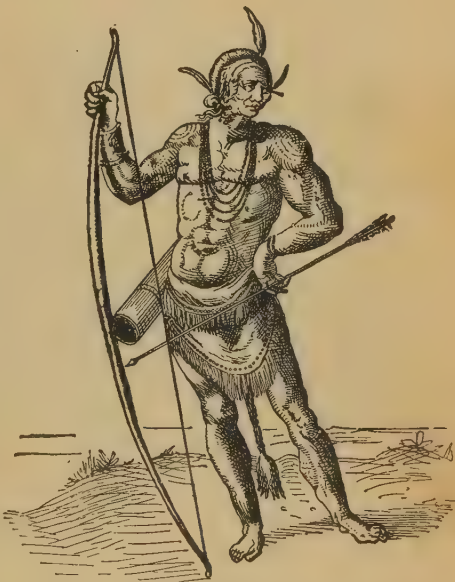
15. Dress and Ornament. — The life of the North American Indians at the time of the discovery was quite different from their life to-day. Their dress was rude and meager. In summer the men wore no clothing except a short apron

¹ In different parts of the United States there are mounds which have long been the subject of discussion. They are especially numerous in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. They are of various shapes, and some of them are so large that it must have taken great labor to build them. It was formerly the general belief that these mounds were made by a superior race that lived in this country before the Indians. This supposed prehistoric race is known as the "Mound Builders." Recent investigations tend to show, however, that Indians built the mounds, and that, while some are undoubtedly of great antiquity, none are as old as they were once thought to be. Some have certainly been built since the white men came to America, for tools, utensils, and trinkets of European origin have been found in them. The mounds were used as sites for towns, or places for defense, religious ceremonies, or cemeteries.

around the waist, but in winter they wore a shirt and leggings made of skins. Their shoes, called moccasins, were also made of skins. On great days the warrior, for every man was a warrior, would clothe himself in robes of skin or fur, gaudily decorated with beads, feathers, claws and teeth of animals, snake-skins, or even human fingers.

Ornament

His hair would be plumed with eagle feathers. The dress of the women was a loose-fitting sack, without sleeves, and a short skirt fastened at the waist by a belt or girdle. Generally the garments of the women were made of skins, but sometimes they were made of the inner bark of trees with the end split into strips for fringe. Men and women wore ornaments of copper, and painted their faces and bodies with many colors.



A VIRGINIA INDIAN.

From a drawing in Hariot's Narrative, 1585.

16. Numbers. — So far as we know, the Indians were never a numerous people. In what is now the United States, their numbers at the time of the discovery probably did not exceed half a million — about one person to every six square miles of territory. Yet this sparse population was divided into many tribes, in most cases separated one from another by considerable areas of land.

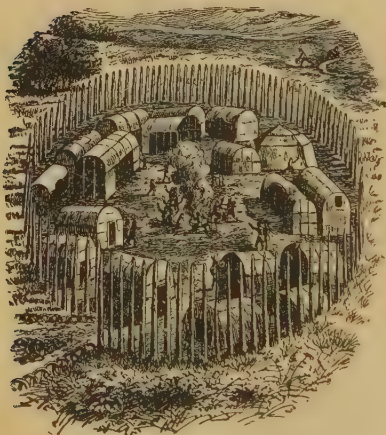
Numbers

The tribe
and its
government.

17. Organization. — There were as many tribes as there were languages. All of a tribe dwelt together, hunted and fished together, and together made war upon some other tribe. Every tribe had its head man, or sachem, who looked after all civil affairs, and chiefs who attended to matters of war. There were no laws, and neither sachems nor chiefs could command obedience. They could only

advise; yet they were held in such respect that they wielded great influence. Sometimes kindred tribes joined into a confederacy.

The
wigwam.



PALISADED INDIAN VILLAGE.

Algonkin village of Pomeiock, on Albemarle Sound,
in 1585.

Every tribe dwelt in a village, which was usually surrounded by a high fence, or palisade, made of trunks of trees. The Indian's home was his wigwam. It varied from a round tent of skins or bark, in which a single family lived, to a house more than two hundred feet long, in which twenty families might live. The framework

of these long houses was made of poles; the sides and roofs were covered with bark. The interior was divided into compartments like stalls in a stable, and a family lived in each compartment. There were no chimneys. Fires were kindled upon the ground, and the smoke escaped through openings left in the top of the wigwam.

18. Occupations. — While every Indian was a hunter and fisherman, only the prairie tribes of the West and the tribes of the far North lived entirely by hunting and fishing.

Others depended more or less upon agriculture. No individual owned land, but each family had the use of as much as it could cultivate. The chief product was Indian corn, or maize, though beans, pumpkins, sunflowers, and tobacco were also planted. Tobacco came to be important in the history of our country, but Europeans had never seen it until they found the Indians using it.

To prepare a field for cultivation, the Indians killed the trees by burning or girdling. Between the charred stumps and dead trunks they planted the seed. The crop was



IROQUOIS LONG HOUSE.

After Morgan.

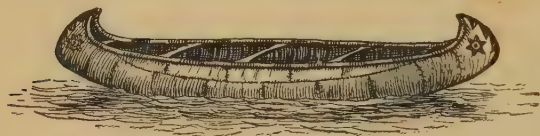
worked with hoes of wood or bone. All the hard work, from hoeing in the fields to carrying the poles and coverings of the wigwams when the village was moved, was done by the women. When the men were not engaged in war, hunting, or fishing, they spent the time sleeping, smoking, or gambling.

Indians made pottery, but it was very crude; many of their utensils were wooden. Their fishhooks were of bone. Of all their products the most artistic was the canoe, which was made of the bark of the birch or elm. It was graceful and light, yet very strong, enabling the Indian to glide swiftly over the water. When neither birch nor elm could

Implements

The
wampum.

be had, the canoe was made by hollowing out a tree trunk. An article of much value to the Indian was the "wampum," a string of beads made from shells. It was worn



BIRCH-BARK CANOE.

as an ornament, used as money, and employed to keep records of important events. It was used also to confirm compacts. When tribes

made peace, they exchanged the wampum. When a man became betrothed to a woman, he gave her wampum.

Amuse-
ments.

The Indians had no written language; yet, though they knew nothing about books, their life was not without amusements, for dances, feasts, and games were frequent. They were much given to trading, even among themselves; they bartered ornaments and trinkets and articles of food. The only kind of domestic animal in the



A PIECE OF WAMPUM.

Indian village was a small dog. Horses, cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs were brought to America by Europeans.

The clan.

19. The Family. — Every tribe was made up of clans, or families. Kinship was reckoned through the female line only, and the children belonged to the clan of the mother. The husband lived with his wife's people, but he never became a member of her clan. He was always considered an outsider in the wigwam, and his wife could turn him out if she wished. He had no control over his own children, but, when he went back to his own clan, he ruled

the children belonging to his sister or other female relative. Inheritance also was through the female line. The little personal property that a warrior had owned did not go to his own sons, but to the sons of his mother or of his sister. Whenever the office of sachem, or of chief, was hereditary, it descended in the same way.

20. Religion. — The Indian had many gods. The most common belief was that the gods or spirits dwelt in the beasts of the forest. In some tribes the belief was strong that even inanimate things, such as the sun, the moon, the stars, the winds, rivers, mountains, and trees, held spirits. The howl of a wolf, the twitter of a bird, the snapping of a twig, the Indian took to have some influence, for good or evil, upon his life. He thought disease came from evil spirits. The "medicine man," who was both physician and priest, pretended to cure disease by driving away the evil spirit. When an Indian died, he went to the "happy hunting grounds."

The work
of spirits

Each clan had a special protecting god, generally some beast, reptile, fish, or fowl. This creature was the clan's "totem" and from it the clan took its name, such as the bear clan, the hawk clan, or the eel clan. It was not unusual for a clan to believe that it had descended from its totem. Every Indian was very proud of his totem. Its figure was painted on his shield, his clothing, and his wigwam, and was tattooed on his body.

The totem

Besides the protecting god of his clan, the Indian frequently had a god of his own. This was his "manitou." He carried on his person the claw of an animal, the skin of a snake, or the feather of a bird, to represent his manitou, and to it he prayed for what he wanted.

The
manitou

21. Character. — The Indian was self-confident and haughty. He regarded himself and his tribe as the

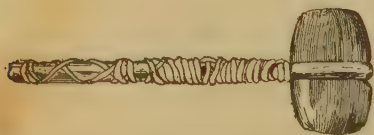
center of all greatness. In the presence of strangers he was polite, but reserved. When alone with his people, he was fond of chatting and joking. His highest ambition was to have the good opinion of his tribe. To him this was glory, and for this he endured hardships and danger, and unflinchingly faced death. When he made a promise, he kept it. He would lay down his life for a friend. He was hospitable and charitable. Every village took care of its poor.

Bad side of
the Indian
character.

But there was another side to the Indian's character. To his enemies he was cruel, revengeful, and treacherous. Though he never forgot a kindness, he never forgave an injury. Nor did he draw a distinction between the offender and the people to whom the offender belonged. He took his revenge on any member of the tribe he could find, and might take the lives of many persons because one of them had done him a wrong. He was of a jealous, envious nature, and when he had not given his promise, was full of deceit. Though he never stole from his own people, he thought it no crime to steal from another tribe.

Weapons.

22. **Habit in War.** — The Indians were warlike, tribe fighting against tribe. They fought with bow and arrow, club, spear, and tomahawk. The tomahawk was a stone hatchet or ax. For defense they used a shield of buffalo hide or of wood, and armor made of similar



A TOMAHAWK.

material. Every Indian had a scalping knife with which he took the scalp and hair from the head of his victim. The more scalps he had taken, the greater his fame as a warrior. He decorated his wigwam with them, or carried them tied to his belt.

War was preceded by the war dance, fasting, and prayer. Brave as the Indians were, they rarely fought in open battle. From their treacherous nature they preferred to surprise their enemy from behind trees and rocks, or to slay him in his sleep. Having filled their pouches with parched corn or dried meat, the warriors would creep stealthily through the forests, in "Indian file," or paddle their canoes along the stream, and in the dead of night fall upon the village of their foes. Setting it on fire, they would slay men, women, and children fleeing from the burning wigwams. When their desire for butchery was satisfied, they would march the survivors home to be tortured. As an Indian considered it weakness to show signs of pain, the captive endured without a groan the suffering inflicted upon him, even shouting his scorn and defiance at his tormentors as long as his strength remained.

Their sudden attacks.

X 23. Relations with the Whites. — The red men at first regarded the Europeans as supernatural. The natives who watched the landing of Columbus thought his ships immense sea birds, that had brought the strange people from beyond the sky, and they stood in great awe of the newcomers. When the Indians first saw a man on horseback, they thought rider and horse were one animal, a monster, half man and half beast. When they saw the rider dismount, they thought the monster had come apart, and they fled in terror. A single bloodhound could disperse a crowd of natives. But this feeling of awe did not last long. The Indians soon learned that the whites were only human, like themselves.

What the red men thought of the pale-face, 1492.

Many of the early explorers and settlers were good men who wished to deal justly with the Indians, but others were very cruel. White men robbed the Indians of their land, and killed them on slight provocation. The Indians

Barter.



A SIOUX CHIEF.

After Catlin.

The results
of barter.

thirsted for revenge, and sometimes banded together and destroyed whole settlements. Mutual hatred and distrust bred almost constant warfare. Yet traders could always find their way to the Indian's heart. The eagerness of the red man for bargains, and his fondness for bright showy articles, made barter with him very profitable. Trade with the Indians was one of the inducements for men to emigrate to America. Simple wares and worthless trinkets were exchanged for valuable skins and furs.

The Indian readily accepted many of the things brought him by the Europeans. He discarded his clothing of skins in favor of blankets, and his crude utensils for the better articles obtained from the white men. He learned horsemanship with remarkable rapidity. He soon became expert in the use of the firearms furnished him by traders, and turned them with skillful aim against hostile tribes of his own race and against the white race.

The hostility between the races had a large influence on the future of America. It forced the colonists to build settlements close together for the sake of protection, and it accustomed them to the hardships of war. At the proper time they were able to present a compact and sturdy front in their contest for independence.¹

¹ In the southwest corner of the United States, mainly in New Mexico and Arizona, there dwelt tribes who, when the Europeans found them, were considerably more advanced than the other Indians of the United States. They made better pottery, and planted on a larger scale. They could weave and spin fairly well, and wore cotton clothes. Each tribe lived in a pueblo—hence the name of Pueblo Indians. A pueblo is a village consisting of one big

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

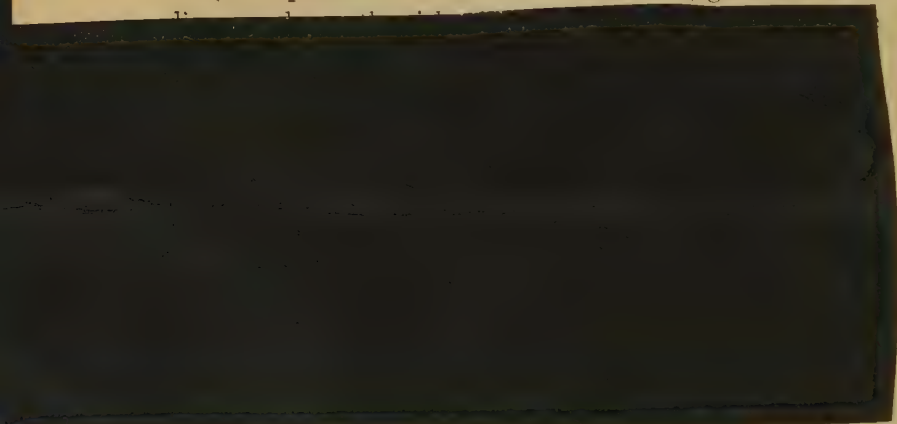
14. ORIGIN OF THE INDIAN.
15. DRESS AND ORNAMENT. — Men ; women ; warriors.
- 16, 17. NUMBERS AND ORGANIZATION. — Tribes ; villages.
18. OCCUPATIONS. — Men ; women ; articles made ; amusements ; wampum.
19. THE FAMILY. — Clans ; kinship ; inheritance.
20. RELIGION. — General belief ; totem ; manitou.
21. CHARACTER. — Friends ; enemies.
22. HABIT IN WAR. — Weapons ; mode of warfare.
23. RELATIONS WITH THE WHITES. — Growth of hostility : effect on later history of the country ; trade ; adoption of European customs.

house, built of brick or stone, sometimes six stories high. Possibly as many as five thousand Indians would live in one pueblo. The pueblos were sometimes built on ledges in the perpendicular sides of great cañons, and the people who lived in them are known as "cliff dwellers." Some of the pueblos are still inhabited. In Mexico, Central America, and Peru there were tribes still further advanced. They had populous cities, highly cultivated fields, and good roads. The inhabitants of the cities lived in some degree of luxury and splendor. They had comfortable homes, well-made clothes, and finely wrought pottery. Precious metals were so plentiful that ornaments of all kinds and vessels for eating and drinking were made of gold and silver. When the Spaniards found this semi-civilization, they marveled at it and made spoil of its riches.

CHAPTER III

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS

24. Hispaniola. — Before Columbus died, gold had been



25. Balboa. — The first settlement on the mainland was made in 1509, on the isthmus now called Panama, where gold had been found. One of the colonists, Nuñez de Balboa, while on an exploring expedition, came to a sea that stretched far away in the distance. Wading into the water to the depth of his thighs, he claimed possession of the sea and all lands bordering upon it in the name of his sovereign in Spain. He called it the South Sea; he and his companions did not know that they saw the immense Pacific Ocean. They still thought that Asia was near.

Discovery of
the Pacific
Ocean, 1513.

26. ^X Ponce de Leon. — There was an old story that some- The
where in Asia was a fountain whose waters would give "Fountain
perpetual youth to all who of youth"
drank of them. The Indians
had told of such a fountain on
an island toward the north,
and many of the Spaniards
believed it was the wonderful
fountain of youth. Juan Ponce
de Leon had grown wealthy in
the West Indies, but he had
also grown old. So, hoping
to find the fountain, he ob-
tained permission from the
king to discover and settle the
island.



PONCE DE LEON.

After an engraving in "Herrera," 1728.

He sailed northward from Porto Rico, and sighted land on Easter Sunday, 1513. Because in Spanish the day is known as *Pascua Florida*, he called the land Florida. Landing near the present site of St. Augustine, he took possession of the country for the king of Spain. He sailed down the east coast, rounded Florida, and examined the western shore toward the north. But he could neither find the fountain nor decide whether Florida was an island. De Leon came again to Florida, in 1521, to plant a colony, but in a fight with Indians received a wound which caused him to sail for Cuba, where he died from his injury. The old man lost his fortune and his life in his search for perpetual youth.

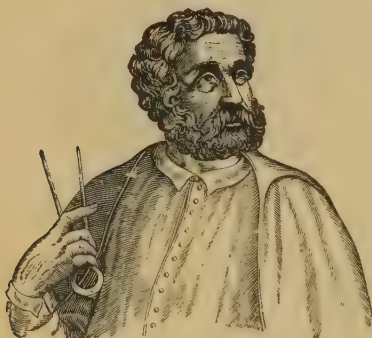
Ponce
de Leon
discovers
Florida.

27. Gulf of Mexico Explored. — Before Ponce de Leon made his second visit, it had been learned that Florida was not an island. In 1519 Alvarez de Pineda sailed along the

coast from Florida to Mexico. He gave a very accurate description of the coast line. In this voyage De Pineda entered the mouth of a great river, now supposed to have been the Mississippi.

28. The Globe Circumnavigated.—Spain put forth greater effort to discover a short route to Asia by way of the west. Ferdinand Magellan was in command of a fleet that sailed from Spain, 1519, to search for a passage around South America. He sailed along the eastern coast of that continent

A ship sails
around the
world,
1519-1522.



FERDINAND MAGELLAN.

After the engraving by De L'Armessin.

to its southern limit, and passing through the strait that now bears his name, came out into an ocean which he called the Pacific. He crossed this ocean and discovered the Philippine Islands, where he was killed in a fight with the natives. One of his vessels arrived in Spain in 1522, having returned by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

This little vessel, the only one left of the fleet, brought back but eighteen of the more than two hundred men who three years before had started on their perilous enterprise. The voyage proved conclusively that the earth is round, for the ship had sailed out to the west and had come back from the east.

29. Searching for the Western Passage.—Magellan's route to Asia was too long; the Portuguese already had a much shorter way around the Cape of Good Hope. Yet there was still the hope that somewhere to the north of Florida a short passage might be found. So the Spanish monarch granted to Lucas Vasquez de Ayllon the right to

De Ayllon,
1524.

settle the country north of the Florida peninsula, provided he made a search for the passage to Asia. By 1524 the Atlantic coast had been explored, through the efforts of De Ayllon, as far as Maryland. In 1525, Estévan Gomez explored the coast from Florida to Labrador. His voyage completed the exploration of the whole coast line from Labrador to the end of South America. Gomez, 1525

30. Expedition of De Narvaez. X Adventures of De Vaca. —

Besides the hope of discovering the northwest passage, Cortez in Mexico, 1519-1521.

there was a new reason for exploring the land to the north. Hernando Cortez had conquered Mexico. There he had found abundance of gold and silver, and a condition of life very superior to that of the natives in the West Indies. (See footnote, page 24.)

Hopes of finding another rich country now inflamed the Spaniards. Pánfilo de Narvaez secured from Spain a grant of the whole country along the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico. He left Cuba in 1528 with four hundred men, and landed on the west coast of Florida.

Thence he marched into the interior, but came upon no treasure. On returning to the coast he could not find his ships. The men built five frail boats, suffering so much from hunger in the meantime that they had to eat their horses. They beat along the coast toward the west as far as the mouth of the Mississippi, where two of the boats were lost and all on board were drowned. Later the three other boats were wrecked off the coast of Louisiana or Texas, and all of their crews, except three white men and a negro, died of hunger and



A SPANISH KNIGHT OF
16TH CENTURY.

De Narvaez
in Florida,
1528.

Wanderings
of De Vaca,
1528-1536.

exposure or were killed by natives. The four survivors were made captives by the Indians, and were passed about from tribe to tribe through Louisiana and Texas. After six years of wandering they succeeded in reaching the Gulf of California, where Spaniards from Mexico gave them

relief. One of the four, Cabeza de Vaca, wrote an account of his adventures.



HERNANDO DE SOTO.

HERNANDO DE SOTO was born at Badajoz, Spain, about 1500; died near the Mississippi River, in 1542. None of the early adventurers in Spanish America had more varied experience than De Soto. He served in the colony of Darien; he fought in a civil war between the Spaniards in Nicaragua; he explored the coasts of Guatemala and Yucatan; he went with Pizarro to Peru, and bore a prominent part in the battles which resulted in the conquest of that country. At the time of his fatal expedition to the mainland of North America he was governor of Cuba and Florida.

Pizarro
in Peru,
1532-1533.

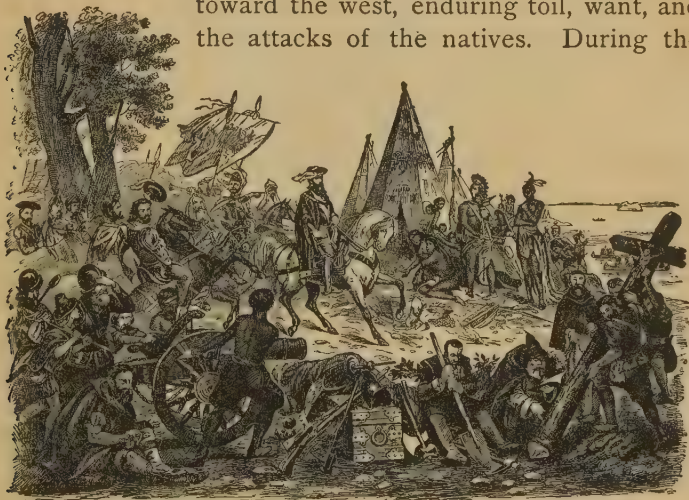
De Soto
in Florida,
1539.

31. **Hernando de Soto.**— Francisco Pizarro, from the Spanish colony at Panama, had conquered Peru, a richer empire than Mexico. One of his officers, Hernando de Soto, after enriching himself in the conquest of Peru, had returned to Spain. Kindled by ambition to out rival Pizarro, he obtained the king's permission to conquer the parts of the New World north of Mexico. With an army of about six hundred men, some of them from the best families of Spain, he landed, in 1539, at Tampa Bay, on the west coast of Florida. He sent his ships back to Cuba,

and began his march up the peninsula. De Soto treated the friendly and the hostile Indians with equal cruelty. He robbed them, and then put them to death or compelled them to carry the heavy baggage. To make them do the work he chained them in couples by the neck.

32. De Soto's March. — The march through forest and swamp was toilsome, and Indians harassed the invaders. No gold was found, and even to obtain food became difficult. The winter was spent in Florida, but in the spring of 1540 the march was resumed. Fights with the Indians continued. De Soto crossed Georgia and passed into Alabama, still vainly searching for gold. He pressed on toward the west, enduring toil, want, and the attacks of the natives. During the

De Soto in
Georgia and
Alabama,
1540.



DE SOTO'S DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

After the picture by W. H. Powell, in the Capitol at Washington.

second winter the Spaniards camped on the Yazoo. In 1541 they came to a high bluff at a point near the present city of Memphis, and saw below them the great Mississippi River.¹

De Soto
sees the
Mississippi,
1541.

¹ Whether De Soto was the discoverer of the Mississippi is a matter of dispute. Some give the credit of the discovery to De Pineda, who is generally supposed to have entered its mouth in 1519. (See Sec. 27.) Others give the credit to De Vaca, who seems to have crossed the river in 1528. (See Sec. 30.)

33. Death of De Soto. — De Soto and his followers crossed into Arkansas, and there spent the third winter. It is probable that explorations were made as far north as Missouri. Two hundred and fifty soldiers of that once proud army had lost their lives, and no gold had been found. Early



MAP ILLUSTRATING SPANISH EXPLORATIONS.

in 1542 the expedition returned through Louisiana to the Mississippi River. De Soto died, and in the darkness of night his companions sunk the body in the river, to conceal his death from the Indians. The survivors of the expedition floated down the Mississippi in boats which they built themselves, and skirting the Gulf coast, at length found safety in the settlements on the Mexican shore.

Survivors
reach
Mexico, 1543.

34. North America a Continent. Coronado. — Meanwhile explorations were being made northward from Mexico. The most famous of the western expeditions was led by Francisco de Coronado, who set out to find the seven wealthy cities of Cibola, about which he had heard wonderful reports. These cities proved to be only seven pueblo villages. Yet the expedition was not an entire failure, for Coronado succeeded in crossing Arizona and New Mexico. He went north probably as far as Kansas and Nebraska. Though De Soto and Coronado found no gold, they had proved that from Florida to California there stretches a wide continent. It was believed that the continent dwindled to a narrow neck of land somewhere about Virginia. Consequently the rivers and bays from Virginia northward were searched for many years longer in hopes of finding the passage to Asia.

The
Great West
penetrated,
1540-1542.

35. Catholic Missionaries in Florida. — The priests of the Catholic Church who came over to America with the Spaniards strove hard to prevent harsh conduct toward the Indians. The king always made grants of land upon the condition that the natives should be treated kindly, and that efforts should be made to convert them to Christianity. The hostility of the Indians, which ill-treatment had aroused, was the chief cause of many failures to settle Florida. With



SPANISH MONK.

the permission of the king, a company of priests landed on the coast of Florida in 1549, for the purpose of making a peaceful settlement. They were unarmed and unaccompanied by soldiers, but the Indians, who had learned to distrust all whites, killed some of these holy men and

Unsuccessful
attempts to
settle Florida,
1549-1559.

drove the rest away. Another unsuccessful attempt at a peaceful settlement, in 1559, put an end for a time to Spanish efforts to colonize Florida. The country gave no promise of gold, while the rich mines of the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, and Peru, poured wealth into the treasury of Spain, and turned the attention of the gold seekers toward the south.

36. Extent of the Spanish Claim.—Spain still claimed Florida, however. Indeed, the whole continent was claimed because of discovery and explorations, and because the Pope had given the western half of the world to Spain. On Spanish maps Florida extended westward to New Mexico and northward beyond Quebec.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

24. HISPANIOLA.
25. BALBOA. — The first settlement on the mainland; Panama, 1509; Balboa discovers the Pacific.
26. PONCE DE LEON. — The fountain of youth; discovery of Florida.
27. GULF OF MEXICO EXPLORED. — De Pineda.
28. THE GLOBE CIRCUMNAVIGATED. — Straits of Magellan; the Philippines discovered.
29. SEARCHING FOR THE WESTERN PASSAGE. — De Ayllon explores coast as far north as Maryland; Gomez completes exploration of Atlantic coast line.
30. EXPEDITION OF DE NARVAEZ. ADVENTURES OF DE VACA. — Exploration from Florida to the Mississippi.
- 31-33. HERNANDO DE SOTO. — March; discovery of Mississippi; death of De Soto.
34. NORTH AMERICA A CONTINENT. 'CORONADO. — Western country explored; from Florida to California one continent.
35. CATHOLIC MISSIONARIES IN FLORIDA. — Attempts at peaceful settlement.
36. THE SPANIARDS CLAIM THE CONTINENT.

CHAPTER IV

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS

37. Conditions in Europe.—While explorations in America were taking place, Europe yet lingered in the darkness of the Middle Ages. Many of the old ideas had not yet passed away. Nations had little respect for the rights of one another. Corsairs scoured the sea, and even in times of peace plundered the vessels of other nations. If it was necessary for their purpose, they did not hesitate to kill the seamen of the vessels they attacked. Though they generally sailed in their own ships, their kings encouraged them and shared in their booty. Spain, France, and England all had their corsairs.

The
corsairs,
1500-1600

The feeling between Catholic and Protestant was very bitter. In a frenzy, born of a mixture of religion and politics, they put each other to death. All Spain was Catholic. In France, the Protestant (Huguenot) party was strong, though not in the majority. In England, first one party, then the other, controlled, until finally Protestantism prevailed. Many of the rich cargoes going from the New World to Spain were seized by Protestant corsairs of France and England.

The
religions.

38. Giovanni da Verrazano.—French fishermen had early followed in the track of the Cabots to the fishing banks of Newfoundland. For a long time, however, France was unable, because of war with Spain, to undergo the cost of exploration. Nevertheless, an Italian named Verrazano,

French
explore the
Atlantic
coast,
1523-1524.

a corsair in the service of the king of France, explored the coast from North Carolina to Newfoundland. He discovered New York Bay and Narragansett Bay.

The French
in Canada,
1534-1542.

39. **Jacques Cartier in Canada.** — At length the French government endeavored to gain a foothold in America. The king, Francis I, had long looked with envy upon the mines of wealth which his Spanish rival owned beyond the seas. Though a Catholic himself, the king declined to submit to the Pope's division of the world between Spain and Portugal. He said, "The kings of Spain and Portugal are taking possession of the New World without giving me a part; I should be glad to see the article in Adam's will, which gives them America." So when opportunity came, he sent Jacques Cartier on a voyage of discovery and exploration. In 1534 Cartier cruised along the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, claiming the country for France. The next year he again sailed from France to Canada, and ascended the St. Lawrence River as far as Montreal. In 1541 Cartier attempted to plant a colony in Canada, but on account of the rigorous climate the colonists returned to France.

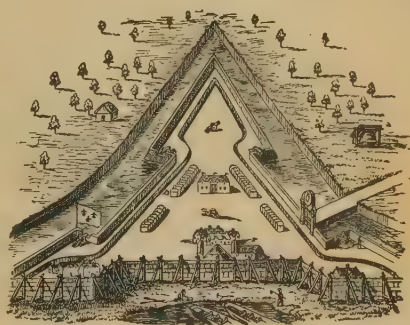
40. **Huguenots in South Carolina.** — In order to provide a refuge for his people, who were suffering greatly in the religious wars, Gaspard de Coligny, a French nobleman of the Huguenot faith, formed the design of planting a colony in America. Having obtained permission from Charles IX, the new king of France, Coligny sent out Jean Ribault, in 1562, to find a suitable place for a settlement. Ribault landed at the St. Johns River, in Florida, and claimed the country for the king of France. Proceeding northward along the coast, the Frenchmen entered Port Royal harbor, in South Carolina. Here they began the

French at
Port Royal,
S.C., 1562.

erection of a fort which they called Charlesfort, in honor of the king. Ribault left thirty men to hold the fort, while he returned to France to bring out a colony. The men who remained at Port Royal would not work to raise crops for themselves, but spent their time in a fruitless hunt for gold. Of course, starvation soon threatened them, and they dared not wait for Ribault's return. Building a clumsy boat, they tried to cross the ocean. They were picked up by an English vessel just in time to save them from perishing from hunger and thirst.

41. Huguenots in Florida. — In 1564 Coligny sent out another party of Huguenots under René de Laudonnière. French in
Florida,
1564-1568

They built a fort on the St. Johns River, not far from the present city of Jacksonville, and named it Caroline for the French king, the Latin name for Charles being Carolus. As in the case of the former Huguenot expedition, most of the men were soldiers and adventurers, who hoped to discover gold. There were none



FORT CAROLINE.
From De Bry's Voyages.

to till the soil, and the old story of famine and discontent was repeated. Some of the more desperate characters turned pirates and preyed upon the Spanish commerce of the West Indies. Fort Caroline was about to be abandoned, when Ribault arrived in a fleet loaded with provisions and filled with men, women, and children.

The king of Spain looked upon the French occupation of Florida with great alarm; the foreign fort, so near the

West Indies, threatened his rich provinces and made easier the destruction of his commerce. He hurried Pedro Menendez de Aviles to Florida to suppress the French colony and hold the country for Spain. The fleet of Menendez, with five hundred soldiers besides sailors and colonists on board, reached the Florida coast in 1565, only a few days after the arrival of Ribault. The Spaniards at once began to make a fortification. This work was the beginning of St. Augustine, the oldest city in the



ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA, AS FOUNDED BY MENENDEZ.

From "Pagus Hispanorum" as given in Montanus and Ogilby.

United States. Ribault embarked most of the French forces on his fleet, in order to attack Menendez before the Spanish intrenchments could be completed. Laudonnière was left at Fort Caroline with a small garrison. A storm scattered and wrecked the French fleet. Menendez immediately marched across the country to Fort Caroline, where he fell upon the feeble garrison and overpowered it. Little mercy was shown, and but few escaped. When Menendez came upon the Frenchmen

Spaniards
overcome the
Huguenots
in Florida,
1565.

who had been on the shipwrecked fleet, he put them also to death.

In plundering the West Indies, Frenchmen had killed Spaniards after their surrender. Menendez had avenged his countrymen. It was again the Frenchmen's turn. But their revenge did not come through the French king, a timid man, afraid to risk a war with Spain. It came through a citizen of France, Dominique de Gourgues, who sold his estates in order to raise money for the expedition. Gourgues and his men landed in Florida in 1567, and formed an alliance with an Indian tribe against whom the Spaniards had made war. The Spaniards, not dreaming of danger, suddenly found French and Indians swarming around them. In the assault every man of the Spanish garrison was killed, except about fifty, whom Gourgues hanged. The revenge of the French would have been complete, had not Menendez himself been absent in Spain. Soon after accomplishing the object of his visit, Gourgues sailed away from Florida.

French and
Indians
defeat the
Spaniards
at Fort
Caroline, in
Florida,
1567.

The Spaniards remained in possession of Florida, with posts as far north as Port Royal. At various points, schools and missions were established by the Catholic Church for the education and conversion of the Indians.

42. The French again in Canada. — The French government again turned its attention to Canada, a region now furnishing a valuable trade in skins and furs, besides the trade in fish. The king gave Pierre du Guast, Sieur de Monts, entire control of the fur trade, on condition that he would settle the country. De Monts made a settlement which was continued for three years and then abandoned.

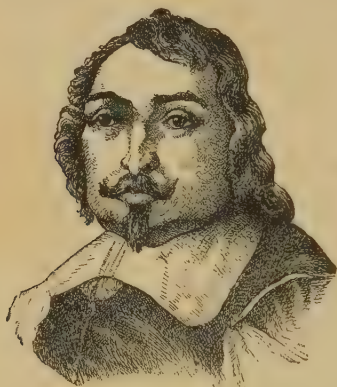
De Monts,
1604.

Among the members of De Monts's colony was Samuel de Champlain, one of the greatest of American explorers. Champlain examined the coast of New England, and gave

Champlain
explores the
coast of New
England,
1604-1606.

Champlain
founds
Quebec, 1608.

Europeans the first definite description of that region. There was no nobler character connected with the early



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

After the woodcut by Roujat.

history of America than Champlain. He founded Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America. For more than a quarter of a century he was the leading man among the French in Canada.

Since the French claimed that their possessions in America, which they called New France, extended far to the southward from Canada, and the Spaniards claimed that Florida extended northward

conflicting
claims to
north
American
regions.

to the end of the continent, the claims of the two nations overlapped. There came a third people, the English, to settle on the Atlantic coast between the settlements of France and Spain, and to claim territory that was already claimed by both of these countries.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

37. CONDITIONS IN EUROPE. — Corsairs; religious persecutions.
38. GIOVANNI DA VERRAZANO. — New York and Narragansett bays.
39. JACQUES CARTIER IN CANADA. — Why sent; three expeditions; purpose result.
40. HUGUENOTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA. — Gaspard de Coligny; Ribault and the Port Royal colony.
41. HUGUENOTS IN FLORIDA. — Laudonnière and Fort Caroline; Ribault's arrival; Menendez exterminates the colony; Gourgues avenges the French; Spain holds Florida.
42. THE FRENCH AGAIN IN CANADA. — Valuable trade in furs; settlement of De Monts; Samuel de Champlain; French and Spanish claims.

✓ CHAPTER V

THE ENGLISH. THE DUTCH

43. **Sir Francis Drake.**—Before the reign of Queen Elizabeth the English took little interest in America. The voyages of the Cabots had been disappointing, and though fishermen occasionally went to the banks of Newfoundland, no serious effort was made in exploration. Yet England was beginning to rival Spain as the foremost power of the world.

England's
power
increasing
under
Elizabeth.



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

From the oil painting at Buckland Abbey,
England.

In 1577, a time of peace, Sir Francis Drake left England with a fleet for the purpose of attacking the rich Spanish colonies on the Pacific side of South America. By the time he had passed the Strait of Magellan all but one ship had deserted him, yet he sailed up the Pacific coast and ran his single ship into the ports of Chile and Peru. Vast quantities of gold, silver, and precious stones fell into his hands. He continued his voyage northward, hoping to find on the Pacific side the northwest passage

Drake sails
for South
America,
1577.

Drake
returns to
England,
1580.

which so many had vainly sought from the Atlantic. He followed the California coast and probably went as far north as Oregon. He claimed the country for England and called it New Albion. Failing to find the strait, he crossed the Pacific, returning to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope. Drake was the second man to sail around the world.

Gilbert
would plant
an English
colony.

44. Sir Humphrey Gilbert. — Meanwhile Englishmen were beginning to see the advantage of planting colonies in America. Such colonies would make it easier to attack Spanish commerce in American waters, and would open up new markets for English trade. The voyages of the Cabots were now seen to be important, and through them an English claim to the continent of North America was started. Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a charter from the queen making him proprietor of lands not already occupied by Christian people, meaning the lands between Florida and Nova Scotia.

Gilbert's
death,
1583.

Gilbert set out from England, in 1583, with a party of colonists. He reached Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, but had met with so many mishaps that he thought it prudent to sail for England. He intended to return to America later to make a settlement. A storm arose, and the little ship in which he sailed was sorely tossed about. In the midst of the tempest men on the other ship heard Gilbert's cheerful voice above the wind, "The way to heaven is as near by sea as by land." His boat sank, and the courageous captain found a watery grave.

45. Raleigh carries on Gilbert's Work. — Gilbert's half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, was one of the most accomplished men of his time. He was a great favorite of the queen, and easily obtained a charter as Gilbert's successor. In 1584 he sent out men in advance to select a site for his

future colony. They anchored their ships in Pamlico Sound, off the coast of North Carolina. Here they found much to delight them. The climate was mild; fish and game were plentiful. The Indians were friendly, and entertained their visitors most hospitably on Roanoke Island. When the voyagers returned to England, they gave such a description of the land that the queen named the country Virginia in honor of herself.¹

In 1585, Raleigh sent out about one hundred colonists in charge of Ralph Lane. They sailed under the protection of a well-armed fleet commanded by Sir Richard Grenville. Soon after the fleet had entered Pamlico



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

After the portrait owned by the Duchess of Dorset.

RALEIGH was born in Devonshire, England, in 1552. He studied at Oxford for a short time, and then fought in France on the side of the Huguenots for five years. He then fought in Ireland. In addition to his efforts to plant colonies in North America, he himself sailed in 1595, with five vessels, to seek for El Dorado, or the "golden land," said to be somewhere in South America. This expedition accomplished little. Raleigh next served with great success as rear admiral in the navy. With the death of Queen Elizabeth he lost his place in royal favor. Raleigh was arrested in 1602 on a charge of treason, and on slight evidence was convicted. He was sent to the Tower of London, where he was kept in confinement for thirteen years. He was then released, and went on an expedition to Guiana. This voyage was unsuccessful in finding gold. On his return he was arrested on the old charge, and, to please Spain, whose favor King James wished to gain, Raleigh was executed in 1618. He was a statesman, a soldier, a seaman, a poet, and an historian.

Raleigh plants a colony in North Carolina. 1585.

¹Elizabeth was called the "Virgin Queen" because she never married.

Sound an Indian stole a silver cup, and Grenville burned the corn crop of the tribe. This excessive punishment broke the friendship that had been formed between the natives and the English on the previous visit, and laid up future trouble for the colony. Grenville landed the colonists on Roanoke Island, and then sailed for Europe, promising to return with fresh supplies.

The colonists
abandon the
country.

Lane was a man of ability, and governed the colony well. He built a fort on the island, and made explorations on the mainland. Gold and the passage to Asia were not forgotten, and search was made for both. Provisions ran low, and the Indians were hostile. The colonists became uneasy lest Grenville should not keep his promise to return with supplies, and in 1586, when Sir Francis Drake touched at Roanoke, on his way home from a cruise in which he had sacked St. Augustine

and other Spanish towns, they boarded his ships and went back to England.

46. Raleigh's Lost Colony. — Raleigh was disappointed, but sent out another party of colonists. The second settlement, which he hoped would be permanent, was to be called the "City of Raleigh."¹ The



COAST OF VIRGINIA IN THE TIME OF RALEIGH

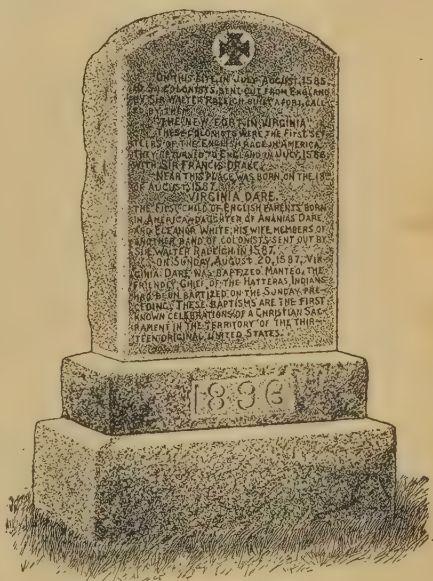
¹ Raleigh's wish to have a city in America bear his name was fulfilled. Two hundred years later (1792) the state of North Carolina laid out its capital city, and in grateful remembrance of all that Raleigh had done for America, named it in his honor.

colonists, under John White as governor, and numbering about one hundred and fifty persons including some women, arrived at Roanoke Island in 1587. Raleigh's second colony, 1587.

Very soon after the landing a daughter was born to Eleanor, daughter of Governor White, and wife of Ananias Dare, one of the colonists. This little girl, Virginia Dare, was the first child of English parents born in what is now the United States. Virginia Dare.

When she was only a few days old, her grandfather found it necessary to return to England to get aid for the colony. He never again saw his little grandchild. War was in progress between England and Spain, and Raleigh and White failed in every effort to get relief to the lonely colony in America. White, harassed with anxiety for the fate of his people, was forced to wait three years (1590) for an opportunity to return to Roanoke. On

reaching the spot where the settlement had been, he found the fort deserted and grass growing in it. Remnants of articles used by the colonists were strewn around in confusion, but there was no human life. Yet there was one little sign of hope. It had been agreed that if the colonists left the island they should carve on trees or



MONUMENT AT OLD FORT RALEIGH.

Disappearance of the colony.

Croatoan.

doorposts the name of the place to which they were going, and if they were in distress, they should make a cross along with the name. Now White saw the word "Croatoan" which had been distinctly carved on a tree. Croatoan was the name of a neighboring island where the Indians were friendly, and as there was no cross, White hoped that his relatives and friends were in safety on that island. The ship captain consented to take him to Croatoan Island, but a storm arose and beat the ship about. Then the captain decided that it had become necessary to steer for England without further delay.

Raleigh made repeated search for his unfortunate colonists, but they were never found. Long afterward, Indians told the English settlers at Jamestown that the colonists of Roanoke lived for some years among their tribes, but that finally, through the persuasion of "medicine men," the Indians put them all to death, except four men, two boys, and a young maid. People have never ceased to wonder whether this young maid was poor little Virginia Dare.¹

Unsuccessful
attempt to
plant a
colony in
Massachu-
setts,
1602.

47. Bartholomew Gosnold. — Though Raleigh's own colony failed, his great purpose succeeded; his efforts inspired others to take up the work. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold sighted land off the coast of Maine, and sailing along the shores of New England, rounded Cape Cod, to which he gave its name. Landing on one of the Elizabeth Islands, in Buzzard's Bay, off the coast of Massachusetts, he built a fort on the site selected for his colony. As supplies proved to be short, Gosnold and his men soon returned to

¹ In the eastern sections of North Carolina and South Carolina people live at this day who seem to be a distinct class from the other inhabitants. It is believed by many that these people are descendants of the survivors of Raleigh's colony and Indians with whom they intermarried.

England. They carried back a cargo of sassafras which was much esteemed as a medicine. *Bedford*

48. The London and the Plymouth Companies. — In response to petitions from men of wealth and influence, King James I granted charters for the colonization of Virginia to two companies, afterward known as the London Company and the Plymouth Company. To the London Company he gave all of North America from North Carolina to the Potomac River. To the Plymouth Company he gave the region from Long Island Sound to Nova Scotia. The land between the Potomac River and Long Island Sound could be settled by either, but there must be at least a hundred miles between the settlements of the two companies. In these charters, as in the charters previously granted to Gilbert and Raleigh, Virginia overlapped both Florida and New France. It is also interesting to note that, though more than a century had passed since Columbus discovered America, it was still thought that the part of the continent covered by the Virginia grants was only a narrow strip; the grants were, therefore, made to extend from the Atlantic Ocean to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean).

Two English
companies
chartered.
1606.

It was through the efforts put forth by the London Company that the first permanent English settlement in America was made at Jamestown (1607).

THE DUTCH

49. Discovery of the Hudson River. — The Dutch had become the leading commercial people of the world, and had built up an enormous trade with the East Indies. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, sailed in search of the western strait that would lead to Asia. His ship was called the *Half Moon*. Hudson entered the beautiful river that bears

Dutch sail
up the
Hudson,
1609.

his name, and at the mouth of which the great city of New York stands to-day. He ascended the river as far as the site of Albany.

And

As soon as the Dutch heard from Hudson that valuable furs were to be found in great quantities in the region he had visited, they began trading with the Indians along the Hudson River. Through explorations of the coast, made by their vessels, the Dutch set up a claim to the country from Massachusetts to the Delaware. They called the country New Netherland.

The Dutch
claim.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

43. SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.—Purpose of voyage; places visited; the world circumnavigated again.
44. SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.—English desire to colonize America; Gilbert's unsuccessful attempt.
45. RALEIGH CARRIES ON GILBERT'S WORK.—The advance expedition; Roanoke Island; the settlement fails; why?
46. RALEIGH'S LOST COLONY.—The second settlement; Virginia Dare; the lost colony; possible explanation of disappearance.
47. BARTHOLOMEW GOSNOLD.—New England; Cape Cod; Buzzard's Bay.
48. THE LONDON AND THE PLYMOUTH COMPANIES.—Conditions of the charters; first permanent English settlement; Jamestown, 1607.
49. THE DUTCH.—Discovery of the Hudson River; Henry Hudson; New Netherland.

PART II.—THE COLONIAL PERIOD

1607-1776

CHAPTER VI

THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

VIRGINIA

50. The Virginia Colonists. The Council.—Early in 1607 the London Company sent out to Virginia a fleet of three vessels, under command of Captain Christopher Newport. On board were one hundred and five colonists, all men. A government had already been provided. A council living in the colony, but appointed by the king, was to have charge of all local affairs, but any regulation which it made could be vetoed by a higher council in London or by the king. The settlers were guaranteed all the rights and liberties of Englishmen. The company expected to get its profits from precious metals, and from taxes laid upon trade with the settlement. The king was to receive one fifth of the gold or silver found.

51. Founding of Jamestown.—Late in April, the fleet entered Chesapeake Bay. Weeks were spent in searching for a suitable place for settlement. Finally the ships ascended a broad river; about fifty miles from its mouth a site was selected. The landing was made May 13, 1607.

First
permanent
English
settlement
in America,
May 13, 1607

The colonists pitched their tents on the bank of the river, and immediately began to fell trees for building a fort. The Indians attacked the fort before it was completed, but were driven away. Very soon afterward terms of peace were made with them. The council elected Edward Maria Wingfield its first president. The little band of Englishmen honored their king by calling their settlement Jamestown and the river the James.



JAMESTOWN IN 1622.

After a cut in the "Scheeps-Togt van Anthony Chester na Virginia, 1622," Leyden, 1707.

Improvidence of the settlers.

52. Suffering of the Colonists. — Newport soon returned to England, promising to come back again with supplies. Trouble set in for the colonists almost immediately. The task of starting a colony in a wilderness is not easy under any conditions, and the Jamestown settlers found it very hard. Many of them were gentlemen unused to manual labor. Few, if any, knew how to plant a crop, which was the thing most needed in a new settlement. Time was wasted in searching for gold. The supplies left by Newport ran so low that the men were reduced to eating provisions that had been spoiled by the long voyage across the ocean. The hot summer came; they were surrounded by marshes, and so many sickened and died that before

autumn brought cooler weather — less than six months after they had landed — more than half the colonists had found graves on the Virginia shore.

Jamestown
loses half its
people,
1607.

53. Captain John Smith. [△] It was due to the energy and wisdom of one man that the whole colony did not perish. Captain John Smith was a soldier and adventurer who had fought in many wars and had seen much of the world. His love for adventure had brought him to Virginia, and his fame had influenced the king to give him a place in the colonial council. When starvation faced the few remaining colonists, Smith kept them alive with corn which he obtained by trading with the Indians. *End*

Influence
of Captain
John Smith

54. Pocahontas. — On one occasion while Smith was on an exploring expedition, he was made a prisoner by the Indians, who had suddenly become hostile. They took him before Powhatan, the head chief of the tribes around Jamestown. Smith relates that the Indians, having decided to kill him, laid his head on a stone and lifted their clubs, but before the blows could descend, Pocahontas, the favorite daughter of Powhatan, sprang forward and persuaded her father to spare his captive's life.¹

Smith was sent back to Jamestown under an escort of Indians. Pocahontas remained a friend to the English. She frequently visited Jamestown, carrying corn to the hungry settlers. Once, when the Indians planned a night attack, she saved her white friends by giving them warning. Later, Pocahontas embraced Christianity, and was

A friend of
the English.

¹ Some years after he had returned to England, Smith published the story of his being saved by Pocahontas in his "General History." Smith was inclined to boast about his adventures, and because there is no written evidence that he had told the story before, some historians have doubted whether the incident happened. But the story is not at all improbable. There are numerous instances where a white captive has been saved because a member of the tribe had taken a fancy to him.

Death of
Pocahontas,
1617.

baptized under the name of Rebecca. One of the colonists, John Rolfe, married her. "Lady Rebecca," as Pocahontas was called, visited England in company with her husband,



POCAHONTAS.

From the famous portrait in Booton Hall, Norfolk, England, painted shortly before she died.

and was received at court with every mark of respect. She was about to embark for Virginia when she fell sick and died. She left an infant son, through whom some of the most prominent families of Virginia claim descent from the Indian heroine.

55. Smith restores Order. —

By the beginning of the year 1608, the colony had been reduced by deaths to thirty-eight men. When Newport returned, he brought over more immigrants. There were now two hundred mouths to feed, and

Smith was taxed to the utmost to get enough provisions from the Indians. He begged the newcomers to build houses and plant corn, but unfortunately glittering particles in the sand had been mistaken for gold, and the men could think of nothing but gold, talk of nothing but gold, and look for nothing but gold. Smith then determined to compel them to work. He had been elected president of the council, and was now at the head of the government.

Smith
president of
the council,
1608.

By order of the London Company no settler was allowed to own land. Moreover, whatever crop a man raised, or whatever food he secured by hunting and fishing or trading with the Indians, went into a common storehouse of the colony to be divided equally among the colonists.

Thus the idlers and gold seekers were able to live on what the few thrifty settlers obtained by hard labor. Smith made a rule that those who would not work should not eat. The settlers knew that he was strong enough to enforce the rule, and it was not long before there was a change for the better. By the spring of 1609 a good many houses had been built and much ground planted.

56. The New Charter. — In 1609 the London Company secured a new charter in which the king gave up control



VIRGINIA IN EARLY DAYS

of the colony. The colonial council with its president was abolished. From that time a governor appointed by the company was to govern the colony. Three hundred immigrants were received, making the total number of persons at Jamestown five hundred. Shortly afterward Smith was so severely wounded by an explosion of gunpowder that he had to go to England for surgical treatment. He did not again visit the colony that he had saved.

Smith
returns to
England,
1609.

57. The Starving Time. — After Smith's departure the settlers again fell into idleness. They rapidly consumed their supply of food, and their appeals to the Indians for help were refused. The Indians had looked upon Smith as a kind of superior being, and were willing to be guided by his advice, but after he had gone they became unfriendly. They planned to starve out the colony, and in the meantime they murdered settlers at every opportunity.

Terrible sufferings of the settlers, 1609-1610.

In the horrible winter of 1609-1610, known as the "starving time," cold and famine almost exterminated the colony.



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

From the map in his "Description of New England."

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH was born in England in 1579. When he was about twenty-one he enlisted in the Austrian army, and fought against the Turks. Taken prisoner, he was made a slave; he killed his master and escaped into Russia. After a number of surprising adventures he reached England in time to join the emigrants to Virginia. In 1614 he explored the coast of New England, and to him that name is attributed. The latter part of his life was spent in England; he died in 1631, and like so many men of distinction, he died poor.

Of the five hundred settlers, only sixty survived until summer.

58. Lord Delaware and Sir Thomas Dale.

—New settlers arrived, but the condition could no longer be endured. Jamestown was abandoned. The colonists were going down the river in a few small vessels in an effort to get back to England, when they were met by a fleet just arrived from the mother country. On board were Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of

Delaware arrives in time to prevent the abandonment of the colony, 1610

Virginia, and a party of immigrants. But best of all the fleet had plenty of provisions. Joyfully the men who had narrowly escaped starvation in the wilderness turned back and sought again the huts they had deserted.

Better times came with Lord Delaware. He enforced discipline and kept the colonists at work. In less than a year, however, sickness compelled him to return to England. For the greater part of the five years following

the colony was governed by Sir Thomas Dale under the title of High Marshal of Virginia. Dale governed with a severe hand; yet he was a wise ruler, and the colony prospered. He knew that the best way to make the colonists work was to recognize the right of every one to enjoy the results of his labor. He therefore allowed each man to cultivate three acres of land for his own profit. Up and down the river new lands were cleared, and immigrants continued to arrive from England.

Sir Thomas
Dale,
1611-1616.

Prosperity.

59. The Planting of Tobacco. — Dale also encouraged the planting of tobacco. The date usually given for the first planting by the Virginia colonists is 1612. When the Virginians found what wealth there was in tobacco, they planted more and more of it until finally everybody was engaged in its cultivation. There was tobacco everywhere, even in the streets and gardens of Jamestown. With tobacco the Virginian could buy what he wanted, and with it a commerce was begun between Virginia and Europe that soon made the colony self-sustaining, and attracted a large number of settlers. There was no more danger of starvation, and there was no more hunting for gold. The yellow leaf had taken the place of the yellow metal, even as currency. The salaries of the governor and other officials, wages, debts, taxes, and fines were paid in tobacco.

The colony
self-sus-
taining.

60. The First Legislature. — The London Company (or Virginia Company, as it is more commonly called) was liberal in its treatment of the young colony. When the settlers complained of unjust laws imposed upon them, Sir George Yeardley was sent over as governor, with instructions to allow the colonists an assembly of their own choosing so that they might make their own laws. The colony was divided into eleven districts, known variously as

Sir George
Yeardley.

First
assembly
in America,
1619.

"cities," "hundreds," and "plantations," and each district elected two representatives, called burgesses. The burgesses, together with the governor and his council, formed the assembly. This first assembly in America met in the church at Jamestown in 1619. The later English colonies were given an assembly similar to the one given Virginia.

"Making
permanent
homes,
1619.

61. Shiploads of Women. — So far, few women had braved the ocean to come to Virginia. The company knew that a house could never be a home in the true sense of the word unless it had the touch of a woman's care and the charm of a woman's presence; that without wives the settlers would grow homesick and go back to old England. Therefore, in 1619, the company sent over ninety worthy young maidens. Each woman was allowed to use her own choice in selecting a husband, though the fortunate man who won her had to pay in tobacco the cost of her passage to America. The plan succeeded so well that other women were sent over by shiploads to become wives of the planters on payment of their passage in tobacco.

The
beginning of
negro slavery
in the United
States,
1619.

62. Introduction of Slavery. — In the same year that the first assembly met, and the first shipload of women arrived in America, African slavery was introduced into Virginia. A Dutch war vessel brought twenty negroes to Jamestown. They were sold to the settlers as slaves. To the men who watched the landing of this handful of negroes, it was doubtless an unimportant matter, yet it was the beginning of a system that had an immense influence upon our country. In those days few persons in the world opposed slavery. Even kings and queens made money out of the slave traffic. Yet slavery would probably not have taken such a hold upon America had it not been for tobacco. When it was found that negroes made

the cheapest laborers for cultivating the plantations, many were imported.

63. Indian Uprising. — Plantations were large, and the homes of the settlers were far apart. The Indians had been peaceable so long that the whites had grown careless about them. But old Powhatan died, leaving no ally of the whites to hold his people in check. The Indians saw with anxious eyes the growing strength of the colony, and knew that if they did not destroy the settlements, they themselves would be driven from the homes of their ancestors. In 1622 they made a sudden attack on the plantations, killing more than three hundred men, women, and children. The Virginians sprang to arms and inflicted severe punishment upon the Indians, forcing them to retire to regions far from the settlements.

The Indians become hostile.

Indians driven into the interior, 1622.

64. Early Life in Virginia.

— The colony was firmly established by this time, and it quickly recovered from the effects of the Indian uprising.

In 1624 the inhabitants numbered about four thousand.

The plantations extended inland to the site of the present city of Richmond. The life of the early Virginians was simple. On the frontier were blockhouses for defense against the Indians. The large, comfortable plantation homes were surrounded by broad acres of tobacco and waving fields of wheat, barley, and corn. There were no large towns, because the people did not need them. Commerce was brought to the planter's door. On his planta-



A COLONIAL FORT OR BLOCKHOUSE.

tion he had a wharf where ships coming in from England unloaded their merchandise and took his tobacco on board. The streams were the highways. The Virginian and his family went to church and visited friends in their sloop or barge. With homes so scattered and life so primitive, social amusements were few. The building of a house or the gathering of a crop furnished the chief occasions for the coming together of neighbors.

65. Early Laws. — The most important act passed by the first assembly was one forbidding the governor to lay taxes without the consent of the assembly. Here we find the beginning of the resistance to unjust taxation that led to the Revolution. Other acts passed by the first assembly give a good idea of society in old Virginia. All divine services were to be conducted in accordance with the rites of the Episcopal Church, the established church of England.¹ It was unlawful to take a voyage on Sunday, except in case of necessity or in order to attend church. Before a planter could sell his tobacco, he must set aside a certain amount of the best quality to pay the minister's salary. If he spoke disrespectfully of the minister, he paid a fine, and if he spoke slightly of the governor or council, he had to stand in the pillory. Profane persons were punished by a fine for each oath, and drunkards were put in chains. To discourage extravagance in dress, a man, if single, was taxed according to the quality of his clothes and if married, according to the quality of his own and his wife's clothes. Any man or woman encouraging the hope of marriage in more than one person at the same time was fined or whipped according to his or her station in life.

Germes of
Revolution.

¹ *Established church*: A church recognized by the government and partly supported by public taxes.

66. Virginia becomes a Royal Colony. — The majority of the members of the London Company were opposed to King James in politics. They sided with parliament in a contest which sought to prevent the king from assuming too much power. The king feared the influence of the company, and annulled its charter in 1624. This act brought Virginia under the direct control of the king. Thereafter the governor and council were to be appointed by him.

The charter
annulled,
1624.

67. The Coming of the Cavaliers. — The change did not take away their assembly, as the Virginians had feared that it would do, for James died soon after, and his son and successor, Charles I, allowed it to continue.

The contest between king and parliament which had begun in the reign of James I, resulted in civil war in the reign of Charles I. As was usually the case, religion was mixed with politics. The Puritans could not accept all the doctrines and ceremonies of the Episcopal Church. When the king tried to compel them to do so, the Puritans formed a political party in parliament to check his power.

The king's party, who, of course, favored the Church of England, were called Royalists or Cavaliers. Their forces were defeated. The king was taken prisoner and executed in 1649. Many of the Virginians had sprung from Cavalier stock, and their sympathies were with the royal party. They openly condemned the execution of the king and regarded his son, who afterward reigned as Charles II, as their rightful monarch. The young prince, then an exile in Holland, was invited to



AN ENGLISH CAVALIER.

Troubles in
England.

Many
Royalists
came to
Virginia.

come to Virginia. He did not come, but many of the Cavalier followers of his father came, because they were unwilling to live in England under the new Puritan government. The Cavaliers were given a warm welcome by their friends in Virginia. They were men of character and culture, and added much strength to the colony. From the Cavaliers have descended some of the most distinguished families in America. When they began coming, the population of Virginia was only fifteen thousand; twenty years later it was almost forty thousand.

and 68. **The Navigation Acts.** — The Puritan government of England lasted only a short time after the death of Oliver Cromwell, who had been at its head. In 1660 Prince Charles was recalled from exile and proclaimed king as Charles II. Instead of showing gratitude for the loyalty of the Virginians, the king began immediately to oppress them. Laws of navigation and trade were enacted, which prohibited English colonies from selling many of their products anywhere but in England, and from buying most of their supplies in other than English markets. English merchants could thus force the colonists to charge low prices for much that they sold and pay high prices for much that they bought. Virginia had built up an extensive trade in tobacco with other parts of the world. These laws so cheapened the price of tobacco, while making the price of almost everything else rise, that great distress was caused.

Unjust
restrictions
of trade,
1660.

69. **Bacon's Rebellion.** — At the command of the king, Sir William Berkeley, governor of Virginia, appointed many of Charles's worthless favorites to offices in the colony. These men misappropriated the public money. The assembly itself voted its members large salaries, laid heavy taxes, and passed many other objectionable acts;

yet the governor refused to call an election for a new assembly. The king went so far as to make a present of Virginia to two of his friends, Lord Arlington and Lord Culpeper. It seemed as if the colony was going to be ruined, and to add to its troubles, the Indians attacked the outlying settlements. Many of the people believed

The Indians
make
trouble,
1675.

that the governor was not taking proper steps to stop the massacres. Some of the planters on the frontier, led by Nathaniel Bacon, attacked the Indians without orders and defeated them. To make war without the permission of the government is unlawful, and Berkeley proclaimed Bacon a rebel. People all over the colony rose against the governor, and compelled



BACON AND BERKELEY.

him to allow the election of a new assembly. When the new assembly met, it passed measures known as the "Bacon laws," for the purpose of reforming the government. The assembly also forced the governor to sign a commission for Bacon to march against the Indians. Bacon continued his campaign, and had about subdued the Indians when Berkeley again proclaimed him a rebel. Bacon was indignant. He called a convention, which met at Middle Plantation, now Williamsburg. Many of the most prominent inhabitants of the colony were present, and pledged themselves to support the popular leader. Civil war now began. Bacon boldly advanced with his little army against Jamestown, where Berkeley had collected a large force. Berkeley marched out and attacked

The patriot
Bacon,
1676.

Bacon's war
on Berkeley

Bacon's
death.

his opponent, but met with defeat, and was obliged to flee. Bacon and his followers entered Jamestown, and destroyed it by fire, many of the men putting torches to their own houses. Bacon seemed master of the situation, but a fever seized him, and he died.

Berkeley
removed.

His death.

With the death of the leader, resistance to the government was soon quelled, and Berkeley was once more in complete control. He wreaked a cruel vengeance on the followers of Bacon. He put them into prison, and took away their property. He hanged more than twenty, and would probably have hanged others had not the assembly protested. When King Charles heard of Berkeley's vindictive work, he exclaimed, "The old fool has put to death more people in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father." Berkeley was removed from the governorship. He went to England to explain his conduct to the king, but was treated coldly, and died, it is said, of disappointment.

The colony
prosperes in
spite of
unjust laws,
1677-1688.

70. Progress of the Colony.—Though Berkeley was removed, the reforms shown by "Bacon's Rebellion" to be necessary, were ignored. The king preferred to rule the colony in his own way, and made the assembly repeal the "Bacon laws." The grant to Arlington and Culpeper was annulled, but quarrels between the colonists and the royal governors, most of whom wished to enrich themselves, continued through the reigns of Charles II and his brother James II. Unjust taxes and the navigation laws were sources of constant irritation. Nevertheless, the colony prospered, and the population increased rapidly. The Indians were pushed farther back into the interior. The division of the settlements into "cities," "hundreds," and "plantations" had long since been abandoned, and the spreading colony was divided into counties. Courts

were held in each county. The meetings of the courts were gala occasions for all the country round about. On horseback, on foot, or in graceful sloops the people from all directions came toward the courthouse for social amusements or to hear the stump speaker harangue about unjust governors and tyrannical kings. Many of the planters were now well-to-do. They lived in spacious houses, and since roads had been opened, it was not

The county courts.

Prosperity.



A VIRGINIA HOMESTEAD OF THE LATER COLONIAL PERIOD.

uncommon to see fine carriages and high-bred horses. The Virginian entertained hospitably, and his outdoor life made him fond of outdoor sports, particularly horse racing.

71. Religion.—Everybody was taxed to support the Episcopal Church, but the law requiring divine worship to conform to the practice of that church was rarely enforced. At an early period many Puritans had settled in Virginia. When the civil war broke out in England, the Virginians, believing that the Puritans were responsible for all the trouble, enacted severe laws against nonconformists.¹ As a result a large body of Puritans removed to Maryland,

Puritans.

Religious intolerance.

¹ *Nonconformist*: one who does not conform to the laws and ceremonies of the Church of England.

where an English colony had been established a short while before. The spirit of intolerance soon ceased, however, against all except Quakers and Baptists. For many years longer unjust laws against these sects stood on the statute books, but in time they came to be ignored and were finally repealed.

72. The College of William and Mary.—Efforts were early made to start a college, but the Indian war of 1622 prevented, and when Virginia became a royal colony the kings discouraged education. But in 1693, William and



COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

After a lithograph made from a drawing by Thomas Millington, about 1740.

Education.

Mary being then on the throne, a college was founded at Williamsburg, and named in their honor. The College of William and Mary is the second oldest college in the United States.¹

There were also private schools and some public schools. The first public school in America was established at Charles City, in Virginia, in 1621.

73. Removal of the Capital.—Jamestown was rebuilt after "Bacon's Rebellion," but an accidental fire again destroyed it. On account of the unhealthy locality the

¹ The Massachusetts colony had already established Harvard College.

capital was removed to Williamsburg in 1699. The tower of the old brick church, surrounded by a few moldering tombstones, is all that is left of historic Jamestown.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

50. THE VIRGINIA COLONISTS. THE COUNCIL.
51. FOUNDING OF JAMESTOWN.
52. SUFFERING OF THE COLONISTS.—Ignorance of manual labor; search for gold; sickness.
53. CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.
54. POCAHONTAS.—Saves Smith's life; marries John Rolfe; England.
55. SMITH RESTORES ORDER.—Smith president of the council; rules of the London Company.
56. THE NEW CHARTER.—Change in government; Smith's return to England.
57. THE STARVING TIME.—Idleness; Indian massacres.
58. LORD DELAWARE AND SIR THOMAS DALE.—Jamestown abandoned; the return; wise government.
59. THE PLANTING OF TOBACCO.—Source of wealth; use as currency.
60. THE FIRST LEGISLATURE.—Districts and burgesses; first assembly in America, Jamestown, 1619.
61. SHIPLOADS OF WOMEN.—Purpose; success of plan.
62. INTRODUCTION OF SLAVERY.—Growth of traffic.
63. INDIAN UPRISING.—Death of Powhatan; plantations attacked; defense.
64. EARLY LIFE IN VIRGINIA.—Blockhouses; plantations; amusements.
65. EARLY LAWS.—No taxation without consent; regulation of society
66. VIRGINIA BECOMES A ROYAL COLONY.
67. THE COMING OF THE CAVALIERS.—Civil war in England; Puritans and Cavaliers; Puritans triumph; execution of King Charles I, 1649; Cavaliers take refuge in Virginia.
68. THE NAVIGATION ACTS.—Substance; purpose; effect.
69. BACON'S REBELLION.—Worthless rulers; Indian massacres; Bacon proclaimed a rebel; civil war; Jamestown burned; death of Bacon; treatment of his men.
70. PROGRESS OF THE COLONY.—Causes of complaint; progress; counties; court meetings; Southern hospitality.
71. RELIGION.—The established church; Puritans; Quakers and Baptists.
72. THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY.—Founded 1693, Williamsburg; first public school, 1621.
73. REMOVAL OF THE CAPITAL.

CHAPTER VI (*Continued*)

MARYLAND

The founding
of Maryland.

74. Baltimore's Charter. — George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, a Catholic nobleman of England, wished to plant a colony in America, where persons would not be



CECILIUS CALVERT, LORD BALTIMORE.

After a portrait in the British Public Record Office.

CECILIUS CALVERT, second Lord Baltimore, was born about 1605; died in London, November 30, 1675. As it fell to Cecilius Calvert to carry out the plans of his father for colonizing Maryland, he is justly regarded as the founder of the colony. Very little is known of the early life of Cecilius Calvert, but as proprietor of Maryland he showed a character for justice and moderation that has caused his memory to be held in universal respect. He married Anne Arundel, whose name is borne by a county in Maryland. Devoted as he was to his colony, Cecilius Calvert never himself visited it.

persecuted for religious beliefs. He was held in high esteem throughout the kingdom, and in 1632 King Charles I, who was his friend, gave him a grant to territory north of Virginia. The king named the new province Maryland, in compliment to his queen, Henrietta Maria. The province was, however, much larger than the present state of Maryland. It included Delaware, a large part of Pennsylvania, and also a part of West Virginia. A charter confirming the grant was prepared, but before it was issued

George Calvert died, and the charter was issued to his son, Cecilius Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore.

The charter made Baltimore absolute lord and proprietor of the colony, except that he and its inhabitants had to acknowledge allegiance to the king. As a token of this allegiance two Indian arrow heads were to be sent to the king every year. The king could not lay taxes upon the colony, nor could he veto its laws or interfere in any way with its government. Calvert was practically king of Maryland, and his rights descended to his heirs. The colonists, also, were protected by a provision in the charter allowing them or their representatives to vote upon all laws.

A
proprietary
government.

75. Landing of the Colonists. — Lord Baltimore sent over about two hundred colonists in charge of his brother, Leonard Calvert. Father Andrew White and another Catholic priest of the Jesuit order, accompanied them. They crossed the Atlantic late in the year 1633. In the spring of 1634 they ascended the Potomac River as far as St. Clement's Island. Here the colonists landed. They celebrated mass, then erected a large cross about which they knelt while a priest read the litany. Leonard Calvert took possession of the land for "our Saviour and for our Sovereign Lord the King of England."

The settlers
land,
1634.

76. St. Marys Founded. — Governor Leonard Calvert and his people easily made friends with the Indians. With hatchets and tools and rolls of bright cloth, they bought an Indian village situated on a bluff overlooking the St. Marys River. The natives agreed to move away as soon as their crops were harvested, and in the meantime the two races lived together in the village in perfect harmony. The warrior took his white friends with him on his hunts, and the squaw taught the English women to make bread from corn. In Maryland there was no starving time. On

The first
Maryland
colony.

lands that the Indians had already cleared, the colonists began immediately to plant, and in a few months the village of St. Marys was surrounded by prosperous farms.

Religious
freedom.

77. The Jesuit Chapel. Religious Freedom to all Christians. — Immediately after settling at St. Marys the priests converted one of the long houses of the Indians into a chapel. It had been the purpose of the first Lord Baltimore to found Maryland as a refuge for the persecuted, and he intended that within its borders persons of every Christian faith should enjoy freedom of conscience. This wish was faithfully carried out by his son. Many of the colonists belonged to other faiths; yet there was no interference with their religious beliefs. St. Marys was the first settlement in the world where all Christians had the same rights.

* Claiborne's
War "
begins.

78. Dispute about Kent Island. — The Virginians objected to the establishment of Baltimore's colony; they claimed Maryland as a part of their territory, and they did not want a Catholic colony so near them. Before Baltimore obtained his charter, William Claiborne, a Virginian, had established a small settlement on Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, for the purpose of trading with the Indians for furs. Kent Island came within the boundaries fixed for Maryland, but Claiborne refused to recognize Baltimore's authority; and in 1635 Claiborne's ships and those belonging to the Maryland colony fought more than once. Two years later Governor Calvert took possession of Kent Island, and soon afterward the English government decided that the island belonged to Maryland.

Ingle's ship
seized, 1644.

79. Claiborne and Ingle make War on Maryland. — Claiborne did not give up the contest. When civil war between king and parliament broke out in England, the Maryland government seized a ship belonging to Richard Ingle, on the charge that the ship belonged to the parlia-

ment party. As many of the people of Maryland favored the cause of parliament, great dissatisfaction followed. Taking advantage of the excitement, Claiborne returned to Maryland and seized Kent Island. With an armed ship Ingle also came back and captured St. Marys. Governor Calvert was compelled to flee to Virginia. A time of confusion and disorder followed, and lasted until Calvert reëntered Maryland with a military force and secured control of the colony. On his return to power Governor Calvert acted very leniently toward those who had joined in the insurrection. He died soon after, and Maryland lost one of her best friends.

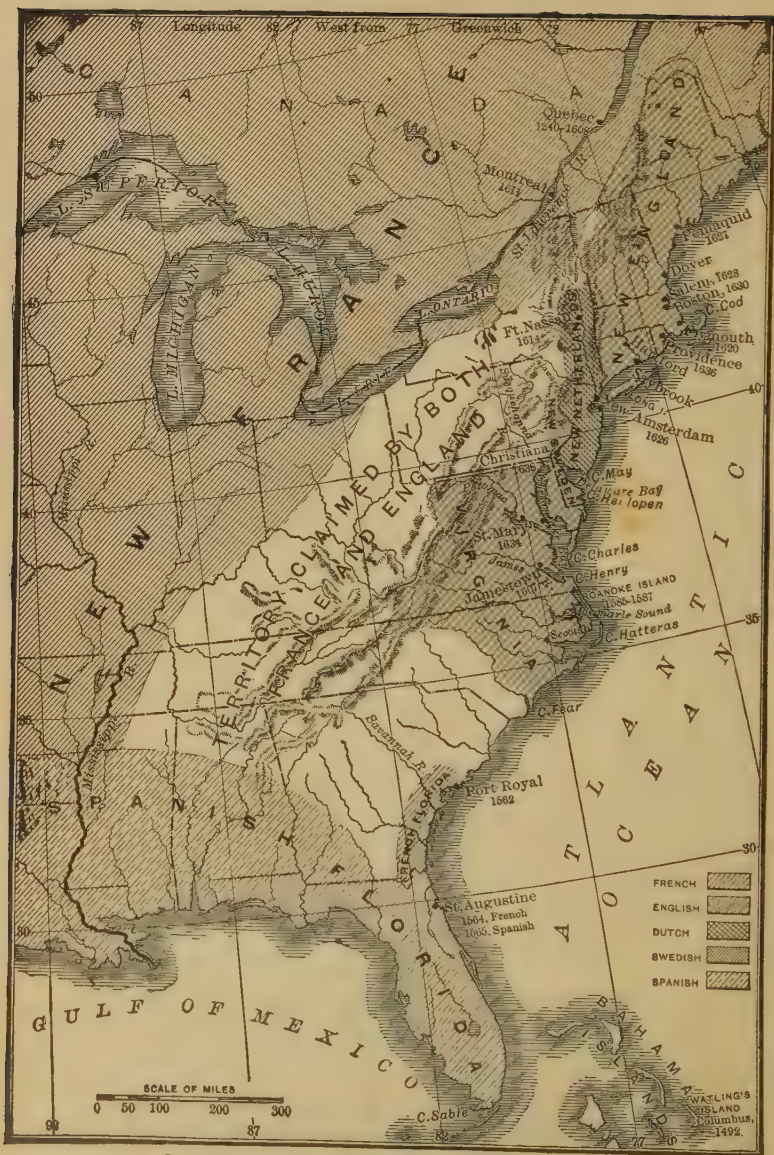
"Claiborne's
War" ends,
1646.

80. The "Toleration Act." — The granting of religious freedom to all Christians in Maryland had thus far been only a custom. Lord Baltimore wished to make it a law of the colony. Therefore, in 1649, the assembly passed an act declaring it unlawful to molest any Christian on account of his religion. The law, famous as the "Toleration Act," is remarkable because it was enacted at a time when it was very common for one sect to persecute another. As a result of the act a large number of Puritans, suffering oppression in Virginia (see Sec. 71), moved that very year into Maryland. They founded the settlement of Providence, now Annapolis, the capital of Maryland.

Religious
freedom
enacted
into law,
1649.

81. The Puritans in Control. — The spirit of toleration brought trouble to the Catholics. When Cromwell, who was a Puritan, became ruler of England, the Puritans in Maryland hoped that the government of the colony would be taken from Lord Baltimore and turned over to them. With the assistance of Cromwell's commissioners in America, they secured control of the government, and passed a law forbidding Catholics to practice their religious rites. But Baltimore had no intention of submitting to the new

Puritan
intolerance.



EUROPEAN COLONIES--ABOUT 1650.

order of things, and he instructed William Stone, who had been governor under his appointment, to regain the government. Stone collected a force and advanced upon the settlements in and around Providence, and in a battle fought on the Severn River in 1655, Stone's party was defeated. Stone himself and nine other prisoners were condemned to death, and four were executed. The soldiers refused to execute Stone, and the others were saved by the pleading of tender-hearted women. Cromwell, however, did not recognize the Puritan government. By 1658 Baltimore was once more in undisputed control of the colony, and again all Christians were given equal rights.

Governor
Stone
defeated,
1655.

82. Early Life in Maryland.—The life of the early settlers of Maryland was similar to that of the Virginians. Navigable rivers were used as highways, and the planter had his own wharf for receiving merchandise and shipping tobacco. The chief production was tobacco, and here, as in Virginia, it was used as money.

Slaves were brought in at an early date. Religious freedom attracted many Quakers, and toleration of foreigners caused many Frenchmen, Dutchmen, and Bohemians to seek peaceful homes on the north bank of the Potomac and the upper shores of the Chesapeake Bay. By 1676 the population of the colony was twenty thousand.

83. Death of the Second Lord Baltimore. Maryland a Royal Colony.—Cecilius Calvert, Lord Baltimore, died in 1675, after more than forty years of devoted service to the colony. His son, Charles Calvert, third Lord Baltimore, succeeded him as the proprietor of Maryland. By 1689 immigration had so changed the population that there were comparatively few Catholics. In that year the Protestants seized the government and petitioned William and Mary, who were then reigning in England, to take the

Protestants
control the
government.

control of the colony from Lord Baltimore. The sovereigns did so, and in 1691 Maryland became a crown colony. The capital was removed to Providence (now Annapolis).



BALTIMORE IN 1752.

After an engraving in Scharf's "History of Baltimore." Philadelphia, 1881.

84. The Proprietorship Restored. — The Lords Baltimore became Protestants, so the colony was restored to the family in 1715, and Maryland continued to be ruled by proprietors until the Revolution.

NORTH CAROLINA

First settlers
in North
Carolina.

85. The Albemarle Settlement. — Emigrants from Virginia, moving southward, made a settlement in 1653 on Albemarle Sound, in what is now North Carolina. Others from Virginia followed and settled in the same region. Many were Quakers who wished to escape the severe penalties with which they were threatened in Virginia.

86. Carolina Granted. — In 1663 Charles II gave the country south of Virginia to eight of his subjects who had been loyal to the crown during the civil war. In the grant the territory was called Carolina. It extended westward

to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean), and so far southward that it included part of the present state of Florida. The king ignored the fact that Spain held Florida and still claimed much of the region now in the Carolinas.

87. The "Grand Model."—Lord Shaftesbury, one of the proprietors, and John Locke, the noted philosopher, drew up an elaborate constitution for Carolina. It was known as the "Grand Model." It provided for orders of nobility and great landowners, and a complicated set of courts. The laboring class was to be held as "leet-men," or serfs. They could not own land, and could not leave the land they rented without the consent of its owner. Only property owners could vote for members of the assembly. The "Grand Model" was impracticable for any community. It was least of all suitable for a people who breathed the free air of the forest. It was never carried fully into effect, and was long a subject of quarrel between the settlers and the proprietors.

The "Grand Model."

The first colonists that came to Carolina direct from England landed in 1670 on the Ashley River. It was not the intention of the proprietors to form two colonies in Carolina, but the settlement on Albemarle Sound and the settlement on the Ashley River were so far apart that from the outset they were distinct communities, each with its own assembly, and generally each with its own governor. From Albemarle Sound developed the colony of North Carolina, and from the Ashley River grew the colony of South Carolina.

Albemarle Sound and Ashley River

88. The Struggles of North Carolina.—The settlements along Albemarle Sound had been organized by the proprietors into the county of Albemarle, but the settlers had been allowed to manage their own affairs. They lived on small farms which they had cleared by hard labor.

County of Albemarle, 1664.

Early
conditions,
1677-1712.

Their homes were scattered, and as there were no roads, they traveled through the forest by following trees that had been "blazed" to mark the way. They planted tobacco and raised cattle; from the pines they obtained timber, tar, and turpentine. In these products they built up a flourishing trade with New England. They loved liberty, and rebelled when the proprietors, who in their comfortable homes in England had little sympathy with the struggling life of the colony, attempted to put unjust restraints upon them. They resisted the "Grand Model." When an effort was made to enforce the navigation laws, which would have stopped the trade with New England, they put the governor and council in jail. The next governor they deposed. One of the proprietors, Seth Sothel, came over to rule them, but the colonists would not submit to his tyranny, and banished him from the colony.

Resistance
to injustice,
1677-1688.

Under a
deputy-
governor,
1691-1712.

From 1691 to 1712 the colonies of North Carolina and South Carolina had one governor, who resided at Charleston. His deputy had charge of affairs in North Carolina. With few exceptions the deputies appointed for North Carolina were unfit to govern the colony. The time was one of almost constant disorder. Nevertheless, the population increased steadily. Huguenots had settled near the mouth of the Taw River; Swiss and Germans had founded the town of Newbern.

Carolínians
defeat the
Tuscaroras,
1712-1713.

89. War with the Tuscaroras.—In 1711 there was a sudden uprising of the Indians, led by the Tuscaroras. For three days the tomahawk spared neither sex nor age. The settlers called upon South Carolina for help. She answered by sending forces under Colonel John Barnwell who defeated the Indians in a battle on the Neuse River. The Tuscaroras again gave trouble, and another force was sent under Colonel James Moore who dealt them such

crushing blows that their power for mischief was brought to an end.¹

90. North Carolina a Royal Colony. — In 1729 the king purchased from the proprietors their rights to Carolina. The colonies of North Carolina and South Carolina were then formally separated, and until the Revolution the king appointed the governors of both colonies.

SOUTH CAROLINA

91. The Settlement on the Ashley River. — The colonists from England who landed on the Ashley River in 1670 made their settlement on the west bank of the river, and named it Charles Town for their king.

First
settlement,
1670.

In 1680 the town and its name were transferred to Oyster Point on the peninsula between the Ashley and Cooper rivers; and thus began the present city of Charleston. The granting of religious freedom to settlers in Carolina brought immigrants to the Ashley River colony. Within a few years a considerable number of Englishmen had come from Barbados, an island of the West Indies, and Dutchmen from New York, and most of all, English people direct from the mother country. The Indians were hostile, and the early settlers had to build their houses and clear their fields with their weapons by their side.

Charleston
founded,
1680.

92. Quick Succession of Governors. — Joseph West was governor from 1674 to 1682. During his wise administration, the colony prospered. Then disagreements arose between the proprietors and the settlers. The causes were threefold: attempts (1) to force the "Grand Model" upon

¹ The Tuscaroras belonged to the Iroquois family or group of Indians. Five Iroquois tribes, living in Central New York, had formed a powerful confederacy which the white settlers called the "Five Nations." The Tuscaroras, after their defeat in North Carolina, moved northward and joined this confederacy, which then became known as the "Six Nations."

Abuses
of the
governing
power.

the colony; (2) to require the payment of quitrents¹ in coin when the original agreement was that they might be paid in produce; (3) to enforce the navigation acts.

In the next four years there were six changes of governors, for it was difficult to find one who was satisfactory to both colonists and proprietors.

93. Governors Archdale and Blake. — Quiet was not restored in the colony until John Archdale became governor. He held the office for one year (1695). He made many reforms in the government, arranging the matter of quitrents satisfactorily, and establishing friendly relations with the Indians. Peace and prosperity continued during the rule of his successor, Joseph Blake, who was governor until his death in 1700.

94. The Huguenots. — In the latter part of the seventeenth century, many French Protestants (Huguenots) came to America to escape persecution. Most of them settled in South Carolina, where the balmy climate reminded them of their old home. They came from the most substantial class of the French people. Many of them were well educated, and all of them were thrifty and of sterling character. They left an impress upon the colony that lasts to this day.

Charleston.

95. Early Life. — South Carolina did not grow from rural communities as the older Southern colonies did, or from a number of towns, as was the case in New England, but developed from a single town. Charleston was the center of all political, social, and commercial activity. In 1700 the colony had about five thousand inhabitants, more than half of whom lived in the town. None of the plantations were so far distant that the fortifications of the town could not be easily reached.

¹ *Quitrent*: A rent charged on grants of land.

The planters sold their products to merchants in Charleston who, in turn, shipped them to all parts of the world, thus making Charleston important as a seaport. The chief staple of the colony at this time was rice. Afterward, the cultivation of indigo was also found to be very profitable. Slaves were numerous from an early period, as negro labor was better suited than white to the cultivation of crops in the lowlands.

96. South Carolina a Royal Colony. — The quarrel between the proprietors and the colonists continued for many years. In 1719 the people deposed the governor appointed by the proprietors, and petitioned George I to make South Carolina a royal colony. The king granted the petition. In 1729 the crown purchased the rights of the proprietors, and divided Carolina into North and South Carolina.

A crown colony,
1719.

GEORGIA

97. General Oglethorpe. — Georgia was the last English colony settled. Other colonies had been settled for religious or commercial reasons, but Georgia was founded through the desire of James Edward Oglethorpe to help men who were suffering from poverty. Oglethorpe had served with distinction in the British army. In 1732 he was a member of parliament. At that time it was the law that a creditor could keep his debtor in prison until the debt was paid. Thus honest men who had met with



Oglethorpe forms a design to relieve distressed debtors.

JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE.

After the painting by Ravenet.

reverses in business might end their days in a cell. It grieved Oglethorpe to see the jails of England crowded with these unfortunate men. He conceived the plan of settling with their creditors and giving them homes in the New World where they might begin life over again.

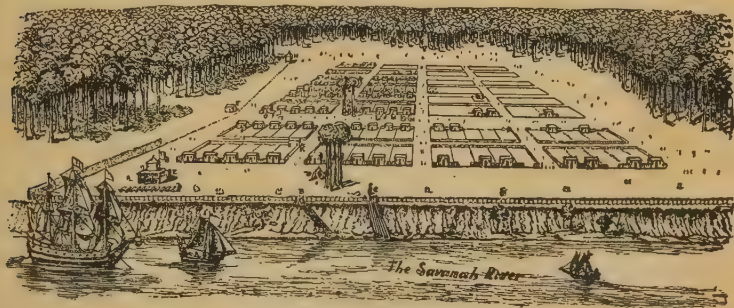
98. The Charter for Georgia.—As Oglethorpe was not rich enough to carry out the plan alone, he persuaded other philanthropists of England to join him. King George II granted to Oglethorpe and his associates the country lying between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers and extending westward to the Pacific Ocean. The charter named Oglethorpe and his associates trustees of the colony, which was to be called Georgia in honor of the king. As the enterprise was undertaken in the cause of humanity, the trustees were to manage the affairs of the colony without receiving pay or any other benefit for their services. Much public interest was taken in the matter. Subscriptions were raised, and parliament added a large sum. To make sure that only desirable emigrants were carried over to the new colony, every person who wanted to go had to prove that he was of good character. Oglethorpe volunteered to accompany the colonists at his own expense.

Georgia
given in
trust to
Oglethorpe
and his
associates.

99. The Settlement of Savannah.—Late in the year 1732 the ship *Anne* crossed the Atlantic with Oglethorpe and about one hundred and thirty colonists on board. Oglethorpe, in advance of his companions, ascended the Savannah River to find a site for the settlement. He selected a high bluff overlooking the river, not far from its mouth. Near by lived the Yamacraw Indians, a branch of the Muskogee Confederacy. Oglethorpe had an interview with their aged chief, Tomo-chi-chi, and convinced him that the Englishmen would be friends to his people.

First
settlement
in Georgia,
1733.

Early in the year 1733 the colonists landed on the site selected, and began the building of their town, which they called Savannah.



EARLY SAVANNAH, GEORGIA.

From a London print dated 1741. Dedicated to General Oglethorpe.

100. Meeting of the Great Chiefs. — Oglethorpe wished to make friends with all the Indian tribes in Georgia. Through Tomo-chi-chi, he sent invitations to the principal chiefs of the tribes in the country round about to gather in convention at Savannah. The invitation was accepted, and the Indians ceded to the whites the lands between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers. The two races also adopted regulations for conducting trade. On account of the peaceful relation thus formed with the Indians the colony was spared in its infancy such savage acts as had afflicted other colonies.

Agreement
with the
Indians.

101. Salzburgers, Moravians, and Scotchmen. — In the year following the founding of the colony there came to Georgia a considerable number of Lutherans from Salzburg in Europe, who had left their homes on account of religious persecution. They were people of great piety. They settled the town of Ebenezer, and by their thrift and industry became most useful citizens. In the next year

Ebenezer.
1734

Moravians, also fleeing from religious persecution, arrived in Georgia and settled near the Salzburgers. In order to defend the colony against the Spaniards, the trustees sent over in 1736 a party of Scotch Highlanders and settled them on the Altamaha, the frontier nearest Florida. The Scotchmen called their town New Inverness and their district Darien.

New
Inverness,
1736.

102. St. Simons Island. New Treaty with Indians. —

In the year 1736 a number of other colonists arrived. Oglethorpe settled them on the island of St. Simons as a further protection against the Spaniards. The town of Frederica was built on the island, and a fort was erected. Learning that the Spaniards were endeavoring to stir up the Indians against the English, Oglethorpe made a perilous journey of hundreds of miles through the forests to Coweta, an Indian town near the site of the present city of Columbus, where the Indians were holding a convention. He spoke eloquently to the red men, and persuaded them to renew their treaty of friendship with the English.

Frederica,
1736.

Oglethorpe's
great
journey.

103. The Wesleys. Whitefield. —

Among the early immigrants was John Wesley, the great preacher through whose labors the Methodist Church was subsequently founded. He was a young man when he lived in Georgia. His work was to preach to the Indians. His brother, Charles Wesley, accompanied him to Georgia, and became secretary to General Oglethorpe. George Whitefield succeeded John Wesley as the minister in Georgia. Whitefield established near Savannah an orphan's home which he called Bethesda, or "House of Mercy." The home still exists as a monument to his faithful work.

The Wesleys
and
Whitefield.

104. Experiments at Silk Culture. —

Mulberry trees grew so plentifully in Georgia and the silk worm did so well in the mild climate, that the trustees hoped to make

the culture of silk the chief industry of the colony. On the introduction of slavery the planting of rice and indigo became more profitable, and the silk culture was abandoned.

105. Georgia a Royal Colony. — Georgia outgrew the ability of the trustees to care for it, and in 1752 was surrendered to the king. It continued a royal colony until the Revolution.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

74. BALTIMORE'S CHARTER. — Maryland.
75. LANDING OF THE COLONISTS.
76. ST. MARYS FOUNDED. — Peace with the Indians.
77. THE JESUIT CHAPEL. — Religious freedom to all Christians.
- 78, 79. KENT ISLAND. — Claiborne and Ingle make war on Maryland.
80. THE "TOLERATION ACT." — Puritans move to Maryland.
81. THE PURITANS IN CONTROL. — Effect on religious toleration; Cromwell does not recognize Puritan government; Baltimore regains rights.
82. EARLY LIFE IN MARYLAND. — Compare with Virginia.
83. DEATH OF THE SECOND LORD BALTIMORE. — Maryland a Royal Colony.
84. THE PROPRIETORSHIP RESTORED.
85. THE ALBEMARLE SETTLEMENT.
86. CAROLINA GRANTED.
87. THE "GRAND MODEL." — Substance; effect.
88. THE STRUGGLES OF NORTH CAROLINA. — Industries; self-government; resistance to injustice; government of the Carolinas, 1691-1712.
89. WAR WITH THE TUSCARORAS.
90. NORTH CAROLINA A ROYAL COLONY.
91. THE SETTLEMENT ON THE ASHLEY RIVER. — Charles Town, 1670; Charleston begun, 1680; religious freedom; Dutch and English settlers.
92. QUICK SUCCESSION OF GOVERNORS. — Threefold reason.
93. GOVERNORS ARCHDALE AND BLAKE.
94. THE HUGUENOTS.
95. EARLY LIFE. — Growth of South Carolina from a single town; compare with other Southern and Northern colonies.
96. SOUTH CAROLINA A ROYAL COLONY.
97. GENERAL OGLETHORPE. — Position of Oglethorpe; debt laws in England.
98. THE CHARTER FOR GEORGIA. — Conditions; public interest.
99. THE SETTLEMENT OF SAVANNAH.
100. MEETING OF THE GREAT CHIEFS. — Treaty; trade regulations.
101. SALZBURGERS, MORAVIANS, AND SCOTCHMEN. — Religious refugees.
102. ST. SIMONS ISLAND. NEW TREATY WITH INDIANS.
103. THE WESLEYS. WHITEFIELD. — Preaching to the Indians.
104. EXPERIMENTS AT SILK CULTURE.
105. GEORGIA A ROYAL COLONY.

CHAPTER VII

THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

MASSACHUSETTS

106. The Region called New England. — The territory between Long Island and Nova Scotia had been granted to the Plymouth Company in 1606, and unsuccessful attempts had been made to establish colonies within its limits. In 1614 Captain John Smith explored the coast of the company's grant, and named the region New England. In 1620 the Plymouth Company was reorganized, with its name changed to the Council of New England; but before any of its efforts at settlement could succeed, a religious body had planted the first permanent colony in New England.

Named by
Captain
John Smith,
1614.

107. The Pilgrim Fathers. — Early in the reign of Queen Elizabeth the Puritans of England had become divided into two classes: the "Nonconformists," who refused to conform to the laws and ceremonies of the Established Church, but retained their membership in the church with the hope of bringing about the changes they desired; and the "Separatists," who had withdrawn from the church. James I, the successor of Elizabeth, was so severe in his persecution of the "Separatists" that some of their congregations emigrated to Holland, where every man was allowed to follow his religion. In 1609 one of the congregations settled at Leyden. There these Englishmen, Pilgrims as they called

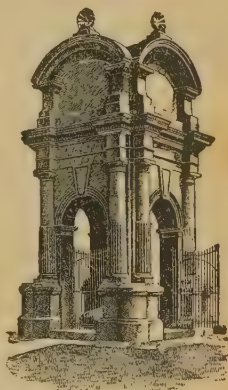
Noncon-
formists and
Separatists,
1567.

themselves, lived for ten years; but they gained only a scant livelihood in overcrowded Holland, and besides, they feared that their children would intermarry with the Dutch and forget their native land and mother tongue. They wished to go where they might live as Englishmen and still be free from persecution. They believed that hope lay in America, where the Virginia colony had shown that settlements could maintain themselves.

America the
home of the
oppressed.

108. Founding of Plymouth Colony. — The Pilgrims obtained from the London (Virginia) Company a grant of land in America. As they were too poor to establish themselves in the New World, they borrowed money from London merchants under promise to return it from the profits of the colony. Even with such help they could not arrange for all to go. Those whose lot it was to be selected for the venture crossed from Holland to England, whence they were to take passage for America. In the autumn of 1620 about one hundred men, women, and children crowded into the little ship *Mayflower*, and after a stormy voyage of two months reached the coast of Massachusetts. It had been

the intention of the Pilgrims to land at some point between the Delaware and Hudson rivers, within the region belonging to the London (Virginia) Company, but contrary winds drove their ships to the north. Some weeks were spent in exploring the coast. A landing was made on December 21, 1620, at a place which Captain Smith had



PLYMOUTH ROCK.

From a photograph. The monument covers the spot on which tradition says the Pilgrims landed.

The
Mayflower's
sails,
Sept. 6, 1620

already named Plymouth, and here a settlement was begun.

109. "The Mayflower Compact." — Before the Pilgrims went on shore the men gathered in the cabin of the *Mayflower* and signed a compact, formed for themselves a government, and bound themselves to obey its laws. Dea-

In the name of god Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread soveraign Lord King James, by the graco of god, of great Britaine, France, & Ireland king, Defender of the faith, &c. Having undertaken, for the glorie of god, and advancement of the Christian faith, and honour of our king & countrey, a voyage to plant the first Colonie in the Northern parts of Virginia. Doe by these presents solemnly & mutually in the presence of god, and one of another, Covenant, & combine our selves together into a Civill body politicke; for the better ordering, & preservation & furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by vertue hereof to enacte, constitute, and frame such just & equall Lawes, ordinances, Acts, constitutions, & offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meete & convenient for the generall good of the Colonie: Unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunder subscribed our names at Capcodd the 11 of November, in the year of the raigne of our soveraign Lord King James of England, France, & Ireland the eighteenth and of Scotland the fifth fourth An. Dom. 1620.

THE COMPACT DRAWN UP ON BOARD THE "MAYFLOWER."

A facsimile from the "History of Plimoth Plantation," by Governor Bradford.
In the State House, Boston, Mass.

Self-government.

con John Carver was elected governor. Thus Plymouth colony began with the people's governing themselves.

110. A Winter of Gloom. — The settlers had arrived too late to make suitable preparation for their first northern winter. Their food ran short. Before the winter was over more than half the colonists had died from exposure or hunger, among them Governor Carver. But the Pilgrims

Governor Carver dies, 1621.

were a brave people, and when the *Mayflower* returned to England in the spring, not one of the survivors went with her.

111. Friendship of the Indians. — If the Indians had attacked the feeble colony, nothing could have saved it. Fortunately the nearest tribe, the Wampanoags, was friendly to the settlers. Some years before the Pilgrims arrived, a pestilence had taken off a large number of the tribe, and the Indians believed that the calamity had been inflicted upon them in punishment for having killed some white fishermen who had visited the coast. They dared not harm the newcomers. Their chief, Massasoit, visited Plymouth, and made a treaty with the colonists that was kept for fifty years.

Massasoit
1621.

112. Slow Growth of the Colony. — Almost every year brought other Pilgrims to Plymouth, but they came in such small numbers that the growth of the colony was slow. Though the Pilgrims were spared the enmity of the Indians, their life otherwise was one of extreme hardship. The winters were severe, and the soil was sterile. The debt due the London merchants for bringing the first settlers over bore heavily upon the colony. But men who had exiled themselves for the sake of conscience, were not men to flinch under adversity. By dint of industry and saving they settled the debt in 1627, and from that time the condition of the colony improved. Fisheries were established on the coast, and trading posts among the Indians. In the simple business transactions that the colonists carried on among themselves and with the natives, wampum was used as money.

The debt
paid,
1627.

113. The Government of Plymouth. — By the year 1643 there were three thousand people in the colony. Eight towns had been built. The government was in the hands

The general
court.

of a governor and his council, called "assistants," and delegates, all sitting as a general court. Every freeman was allowed to vote, and each town sent two delegates to the general court. For almost three quarters of a century the colony existed without the formal sanction of the crown, though efforts were made to obtain a charter from the king. In 1691 Plymouth was annexed, by order of the king, to the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

John
Endicott.

114. Settlement of Massachusetts Bay. — Close by Plymouth other Puritans planted a colony. Unlike the Pilgrims, however, these Puritans were Nonconformists. Moreover, they were men of wealth and prominence. When they saw that the course of Charles I toward all Puritans was even more severe than his father's had been, they realized that the time might come when they would need a place of refuge. Therefore, in 1628, John Endicott and five other nonconforming Puritans obtained from the Council of New England a patent to a narrow strip of land on the coast of Massachusetts, beginning three miles south of the Charles River and extending to a point three miles north of the Merrimac, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. In the same year Endicott led out sixty colonists and settled them at a place on Massachusetts Bay which he named Salem.

Settlement
at Salem,
1628.

115. Charter of the Massachusetts Bay Company. — The men who had obtained a patent to the land on Massachusetts Bay thought it prudent to secure from the king a confirmation of the grant. In 1629 the king gave the patentees a charter under the name of "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England." The company was enlarged, and other colonists were immediately sent out. When the new settlers arrived at Salem, they found that those who had preceded them had

More
immigrants.

worked with so much industry that there were houses enough for all, and crops almost ready for gathering.

116. Charter brought to America. Governor Winthrop. *Governor Winthrop*
Settlement of Boston.—As the king's course grew more tyrannical, the members of the Massachusetts Bay Company themselves took ship in 1630 for America. They brought their charter with them. It was at this time that the Puritans began leaving England in great numbers, as many as one thousand coming over in one year. John Winthrop, a man of wealth and education, and one of the great characters of colonial history, took the place of Endicott as governor. As there were too many people for the little settlement at Salem to provide for, the immigrants began the building of other towns, among them Boston, which soon became the seat of government.



JOHN WINTHROP.

After the original in the Massachusetts Senate Chamber.

JOHN WINTHROP was born near Groton, England, January 22, 1588; died at Boston, Massachusetts, March 26, 1649. He was educated at Cambridge University, became a lawyer and followed the legal profession so long as he remained in England. He was governor of Massachusetts twelve years of the nineteen that he lived in the colony. His journal has been published under the title of "The History of New England from 1630 to 1649."

Boston
settled,
1630.

117. Church and Government.—Very soon after landing in America the Puritans of Massachusetts Bay organized a church independent of the Church of England. They made Massachusetts a religious commonwealth—that is, the church controlled the government. Only church members were allowed to vote or to hold office, and the ministers decided who should be church mem-

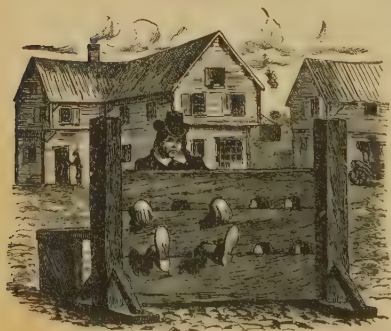
The church
controls.

bers. As the majority of the people were not admitted to church membership, all power was thus placed in the hands of a few men who were largely influenced by the ministers.

Intolerance.

The governor, assistants, and delegates from the towns constituted the general court; yet every matter relating to government was referred to the ministers for their advice. Everybody was taxed to support the Puritan Church, and no other form of worship was permitted. Men and women who objected to the Puritan idea of religion or government were whipped or banished from the colony. Massachusetts was settled at a time when there was little religious toleration in the world. It was usual for the party that was strongest to persecute the others. The Puritans had fled to New England that they might worship God in their own way; and they feared that, if other religious sects were allowed among

them, they might lose control of the colony that they themselves had established.



IN THE STOCKS.

Constant
vigilance.

118. Early Customs and Laws.—There were few pastimes in the colony, for gayety was looked upon as sinful. Every person was required to attend church on Sunday; and in order to be prepared against Indian attacks, the men were

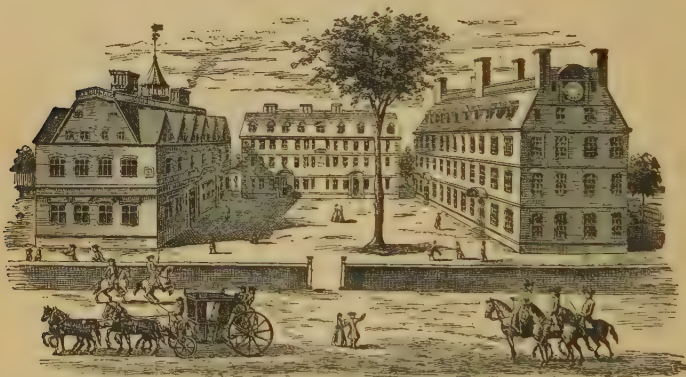
formed into a military company, and marched to church with guns on their shoulders. There were laws to regulate many things with which the law does not now concern itself: what wages a servant should receive;

what price the grocer should charge; how a man should wear his hair (it was to be closely cropped); how a woman should cut the sleeves of her dress. With the purpose of warning evil doers, great publicity was given to punishments. A blasphemer was branded on the forehead. For lying, the culprit was placed in the pillory or the stocks; for other offenses he was made to stand in a public place with a placard on his breast, indicating by an initial letter the crime of which he had been guilty. Penalties.

119. **Roger Williams. Anne Hutchinson.**—There were some among the Puritans who were not pleased with the union of church and state. Roger Williams was the minister of the church at Salem. He was a young man of learning and piety, of gentle temper and loving disposition; yet he was so fond of discussion that he would argue on any subject. His ideas were far in advance of his time, and his boldness of speech got him into trouble. He taught that every man should be allowed to vote and to follow the religion that he preferred. The utterance of these views tended to weaken the government that the Puritan leaders had been at so much pains to erect. But Williams went farther. He declared that the king had no right to make grants of land in America; that these lands belonged to the Indians and should be purchased from them. Thus he not only questioned the titles to the lands which the settlers had acquired, but he denied the authority of the king. The doctrines of Williams, both religious and political, were regarded as dangerous to the colony. He was therefore banished in 1636. It was ordered that he be sent to England, but he escaped into the wilderness. Roger Williams, 1634. His liberal views. Goes into the wilderness, 1636.

Hardly had the trouble with Williams ended when the colony was agitated by another religious controversy. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson lived in Boston. Like Williams, she Anne Hutchinson.

had deep religious feeling, and like him she was unwilling to remain quiet when her belief came into conflict with the teachings of the church. Men and women crowded into her house to hear her preach. She soon had a large following, and Boston became divided into two bitter factions, one favoring Mrs. Hutchinson, and the other opposing. The controversy spread to other towns, and the colony was shaken to its foundations. When some of the militia



"A PROSPECT OF THE COLLEDGES IN CAMBRIDGE IN NEW ENGLAND."

After an early picture in the possession of the Massachusetts Historical Society

refused to serve against the Indians because their chaplain did not agree with Mrs. Hutchinson's views, the authorities thought it time to interfere. In 1638 Mrs. Hutchinson and some of her followers were banished.

120. **Education.** — As a rule the settlers of Massachusetts were men who had received good education, and who therefore knew the value of learning. In 1636 the general court made an appropriation for the establishment of a college at Newtown (now Cambridge). Two years later Rev. John Harvard left a sum of money and his library to

Banished,
1638.

Harvard
College,
1636.

the institution, and in recognition of his generosity the college was named Harvard. It is the oldest college in the United States.

121. Slavery. — In the same year that Harvard College was founded, the first slave ship built in America was launched at Marblehead, Massachusetts. It brought to the colony a shipload of slaves to be sold to the settlers.

The first
American
slave ship,
1636.

122. Growth of the Colony. — The colony was now firmly established. Comfortable homes had taken the place of the rough cabins of the first settlers, woods had been cleared for farms, and adventurous skippers in boats of their own making traded along the coast, going as far as the Dutch settlement in New York harbor. Fish, furs, and lumber were shipped to England and exchanged for manufactured articles. The growth of Massachusetts in population was very rapid. By 1640, only twelve years after Endicott and his men had settled at Salem, there were twenty thousand persons, mostly Puritans, living in the towns that had sprung up in the colony.

Prosperity.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

123. The First Settlements. — John Mason and Ferdinando Gorges, friends of King James, obtained a grant for all of the northern part of New England — from the Merrimac River northward to the Kennebec and westward to Lake George. In 1623 a few men began settlements at Portsmouth and Dover, both within the present limits of New Hampshire. These near neighbors of the Puritans were not of their faith. They were adventurers who had come out to find gold and to trade with the Indians. Later some Puritans went to Dover, where they built a church, and it was not long before the first settlers and the newcomers were quarreling.

Portsmouth
and Dover.
1623.

124. The Feebleness of the Colony. — Mason and Gorges divided their grant in 1629, the former taking the western part (New Hampshire) and the latter the eastern part (Maine).¹ Mason died soon after, and his grant was surrendered to the Council of New England. The two feeble settlements at Portsmouth and Dover were neglected. They continued their quarrels, and made but slow growth. In 1638, followers of Mrs. Hutchinson, who had been banished from Massachusetts, founded Exeter. In the same year other emigrants from Massachusetts, reënforced by emigrants from England, founded Hampton. The four towns of New Hampshire were independent of one another, yet each tried to assert authority over the others. They weakened themselves by religious and political dissensions, and were so harassed by Indians that they sought the protection of Massachusetts and were incorporated as a part of that colony in 1641.

Exeter and
Hampton,
1638.

New
Hampshire
a part of
Massachu-
setts.

New Hampshire remained a part of Massachusetts until 1679, when the king made it a royal colony. It was again united to Massachusetts in 1685. It was finally made a separate colony in 1692. At the time of the Revolution, New Hampshire was a royal colony.

¹ Fishing stations and trading posts were established in Maine at an early date, but Gorges and his heirs failed to make a success of the colony. In 1652 Maine was annexed to Massachusetts, of which it remained a part until 1820, when it was admitted into the Union as a separate state. The western part of Mason's grant (now Vermont) became known as the "New Hampshire Grants," because the colony of New Hampshire, claiming the region, made large grants of its lands to settlers. New York also claimed the region, and the question was unsettled for many years. In 1777 the inhabitants organized a government independent of both New Hampshire and New York, and in 1791 Vermont was admitted into the Union as a state.

Bogert
CONNECTICUT

125. **The Dutch and the English.**—The Dutch had made a settlement on the site of the present New York city, and had called it New Amsterdam. They claimed southern New England as a part of New Netherland. (See Sec. 49.) In 1633, attracted to the Connecticut valley by the profitable trade to be had there with the Indians, they completed a fort on the Connecticut River at the present site of Hartford. This fort they called Good Hope.

The Dutch
fort of Good
Hope,
1633.

New Englanders, drawn by the Indian traffic, had also come into the valley. They warned the Dutch governor at New Amsterdam that he was intruding upon territory belonging to the king of England, but the Dutch thought that they had as good a claim as the English, and refused to withdraw. A few months after the Dutch had built their fort on the river, the Plymouth colony directed William Holmes to take possession of the valley. He sailed up the river, passed the Dutch fort against the protest of its commander, and set up a trading post on the site of Windsor. The Dutch governor at New Amsterdam sent soldiers to drive away the Plymouth people, but on arriving at the post the soldiers thought it prudent not to risk an attack. The Dutch still thought, however, that they would make good their claim to the Connecticut valley by building a fort at the mouth of the river, but the English were too quick for them. Two noblemen of England, Lord Saye and Sele and Lord Brook, had obtained from the Council of New England a grant to lands on Long Island Sound. They chose as their governor the younger John Winthrop, son of the celebrated governor of Massachusetts. Winthrop, learning what the Dutch

Holmes
passes the
Dutch fort.

The younger
Winthrop.

intended doing, sent men to the mouth of the Connecticut River, where they arrived just in time to build Fort Saybrook and drive away the Dutch ship (1635).

Dutch
claims and
English
occupation.

Though for many years the Dutch continued to claim the Connecticut valley, they never gained a permanent foothold there. The English crowded them out. The Dutch wished to use the valley only as a region for their traders to visit, but the English occupied it by building homes.

126. Emigration from Massachusetts. — The crowding out of the Dutch was mainly the work of emigrants from Massachusetts. Many persons in the Bay colony coveted the fertile lands about which they had heard such good reports; and besides, they had become dissatisfied with the government of Massachusetts. In 1635 a party of men from Dorchester went overland to the trading post of the Plymouth people, and founded the town of Windsor; others from Watertown journeyed farther, and settled at Wethersfield. In the next year the migration began in earnest. The inhabitants of Newtown (now Cambridge) sold their houses and lands and turned their faces toward Connecticut. They were led by their pastor, Thomas Hooker, and numbered about one hundred persons, men, women, and children. In ten days they had reached their journey's end, and had begun the town of Hartford, on the spot where the Dutch had built their fort of Good Hope. By the spring of the year 1637 the population of the three towns, Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford, amounted to eight hundred. The people of Connecticut then set up a government for themselves by organizing a general court, to which the towns sent delegates. *and*

Windsor
founded,
1635.
Wethers-
field.

Hartford,
1636.

Indian war,
1637.

127. The Pequot War. — Among the first acts of the general court was one declaring war against the Pequot

Indians. The Pequots were the most powerful of all the tribes of New England. They lived in what is now the eastern part of Connecticut. Becoming incensed because of the intrusion of the whites, they murdered settlers and killed their cattle. They ravaged places far apart; they were here to-day and there to-morrow; no man in the Connecticut towns felt safe.

Captain John Mason led about a hundred men against the principal village of the Pequots near Stonington. The village was surrounded by a palisade, and within it were collected about seven hundred Indians. But the warriors and their families did not suspect that danger was near. Just at the break of day they awoke from sleep to hear the shouts and shots of Mason's men. Taken by surprise, the Indians could not make much resistance. The English set fire to the village, and the savages who were not killed perished in the flames. Of the seven hundred occupants, only five escaped. The battle exterminated the Pequots. The other tribes, amazed at the strength of a people that could destroy the powerful Pequots, gave the whites no trouble for many years.

Mason
overcomes
the Pequots.

128. The Connecticut Constitution. — The three Connecticut towns adopted a constitution in 1639. Connecticut was the only colony whose people framed a constitution. The king's permission was not even asked, and the citizens swore allegiance, not to the king, but to the colony, as though it were an independent republic. The right to vote was given to every freeman.

The people
frame a
constitution

129. Founding of the New Haven Colony. — Soon after the defeat of the Pequots, Puritans from England established another colony in what is now the state of Connecticut. A congregation came over from the mother country, under the lead of Rev. John Davenport. They

New Haven,
1638.

landed at New Haven, on Long Island Sound, in 1638. Being Puritans of the most intense type, they entered into a compact to live together under the laws of the Old Testament. They abolished trial by jury, because there was no warrant in the Bible for such a practice. Taking as a pattern the biblical idea of the House of Wisdom hewn from seven pillars,¹ they elected seven men to serve as the "seven pillars of the church." Here, even more than in Massachusetts, the church controlled the government. Other emigrants arrived, and new towns were founded on the New Haven model. In 1643 the towns united as the New Haven colony. In 1662 the king annexed the New Haven colony to Connecticut.

End -

RHODE ISLAND



THE STATUE OF
ROGER WILLIAMS
AT PROVIDENCE.

Williams
in the
wilderness,
1636.

130. Roger Williams at Providence. — Roger Williams had fled from Massachusetts to the savages, yet he fled to friends, for he had often shown them kindness and they loved him. After wandering for fourteen weeks, frequently without food or fire, through woods deep in snow, he came to the wigwam of the old chief Massasoit, and received a warm welcome. Williams began building a cabin on the Seekonk River, and five of his friends from Massachusetts joined him. He was warned, however, that he had settled within the limits of the Plymouth colony, and was advised to move farther. Embarking with his five companions in a small canoe, and floating down the stream, he made a landing

¹ Proverbs ix. 1.

at the foot of a hill, just above the mouth of the river. Here he began a settlement which he called Providence. He had settled in the territory of the Narragansetts, and the chiefs of that tribe gave him a great tract of the surrounding lands.

Settles at
Providence

131. Religious Freedom.—Williams wished to make homes for all who suffered on account of their religious belief, or, as he expressed it, all who were “distressed for conscience.” Therefore, when persecuted people sought him, he gave them lands. He gave away so much land that he had none left for himself. Under Williams’s instruction the settlers at Providence organized a very simple government. All signed a compact agreeing to obey laws passed by the majority, but “only in civil things.” No church was to be supported by taxes, and every man, whether Christian, Jew, Mohammedan, or heathen, could worship as he chose. Nowhere else in the world were all men allowed equal religious rights.¹

Majority
to rule.

The Puritans of New England looked with abhorrence upon a colony that refused to shut its doors upon any man. They did not believe that Rhode Island could survive. Yet the broad principle upon which it was builded is the foundation stone of our great republic.

132. Portsmouth. Newport.—In 1637 some of the followers of Mrs. Anne Hutchinson settled Portsmouth, on the northern end of Aquidneck Island,² in Narragansett Bay. Soon afterward Mrs. Hutchinson joined them. Both Providence and Portsmouth became havens of ref-

Portsmouth,
1637.

¹ While Rhode Island allowed every man to worship according to his own religious belief, political rights were not permitted to all. For instance, a Roman Catholic or a Jew was not allowed to vote.

² Now called Rhode Island.

Newport,
1639.

uge for those who had been banished from Massachusetts or who had left of their own accord to escape the strict religious government of that colony. In 1639 some of the Portsmouth people founded the town of Newport on the southern end of Rhode Island. In 1644 Roger Williams obtained a charter from England organizing the towns of Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport into a colony under the name of "Providence Plantations."

DEVELOPMENT OF NEW ENGLAND

United
Colonies
of New
England,
1643.

133. Union of the Colonies. — The French, who had made permanent settlements on the St. Lawrence River, were pushing close upon territory claimed by New England; the Dutch still threatened the Connecticut valley; and the Indians were once more becoming restless. As a protection against these dangers, the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven formed a confederation, or league, under the name of the "United Colonies of New England." Commissioners from the colonies took charge of certain matters of general concern, but each colony retained the management of its local affairs. Rhode Island was not admitted into the confederation, because it harbored people of every religion.¹ The people of New England had organized the confederation without permission from the home government, and their spirit of independence was regarded in England with suspicion.

134. New England Towns. Education. Eliot, the "Indian Apostle." — On account of the sterile soil there were few large plantations in New England. As each community formed a separate church congregation, it was con-

¹ New Hampshire was at that time part of Massachusetts.

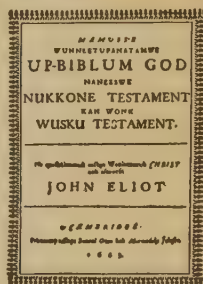
venient for the people to live close together. Thus there grew up a number of towns, each built around its meeting house.¹

One of the first matters to receive the attention of the confederation was education. That Harvard College might be helped, the four colonies took up contributions of "corn for the poor scholars in Cambridge." Each colony of the confederation then passed a law requiring every town to establish a school. Education

The interests of the natives were not neglected. Missionaries labored to convert them to Christianity and to teach their children to read and write. At first the Indians thought it very foolish for the missionaries to ask them to give up their many gods for the one God of the Missionaries.

white men, but the missionaries persevered until in time there came to be about four thousand Christian Indians, or "praying Indians," as they were called. They lived in villages removed from the influence of other Indians, and most of them wore the English dress. Schools were set up among them, in which agriculture as well as religion was taught. Rev. John Eliot spent many years of his life at work among the Indians, and met with such success

in converting them that he is called the "Indian Apostle." John Eliot He translated the Holy Bible into the language spoken by the Indians on Massachusetts Bay. A work of such stupendous labor has seldom been accomplished. Copies of



TITLE-PAGE OF
ELIOT'S BIBLE.

Reduced facsimile.

¹ However, for government and church purposes, the town not only included the village itself, but so much of the surrounding country as was within easy reach of the meeting house,

Eliot's Bible are still in existence, but there are few scholars who can decipher the text.

The mint. 135. "Pine-tree Shillings."—In 1652 the colony of Massachusetts set up a mint for coining money. For over



PINE-TREE SHILLING.

thirty years shillings and other pieces of money were coined. Because a pine tree was stamped on one side of each piece, the shilling, for instance, became known as the "pine-tree shilling."

Usually only independent governments have the right to coin money, and when Massachusetts took this step, the authorities in England thought more than ever that the colony was becoming too independent.

Religious
views of the
Friends.

Opposed
to war.

Their
sufferings.

136. **Persecution of the Quakers.**—Of all the sects that ventured into Massachusetts the Quakers, or Friends, as they called themselves, suffered the greatest persecution. The Quakers opposed the union of church and state. They believed that a man should worship according to the dictates of his own conscience. They refused to pay tithes, to serve in war, or to take an oath of any kind. Quakers were persecuted in England; four thousand were confined at one time in the jails of the kingdom. Quakers who came to Boston were put in jail. Their books were burned, and the windows of the jail were boarded up so that they might not talk with the people on the streets. Both men and women were flogged, and were shipped out of the colony. But the Quakers came back. They believed that it was the will of God that they should persevere in spreading their doctrines in the face of oppression

Harsher measures were tried. Laws were passed that the ears of Quakers should be cut off or that their tongues should be bored with hot iron. Still the Quakers came back. A law was then passed inflicting the death penalty. Between 1659 and 1661 four Quakers, one a woman, were hanged in Boston. The people of Massachusetts never approved putting the Quakers to death. It was the government that resorted to such a harsh course, and the indignation of the people forced the repeal of the law. Quakers were fined and imprisoned, however, until Charles II ordered that all persecution of them be stopped.

Their
persistenc

137. **New Haven and the Regicides.** The Massachusetts Charter in Danger.—When Charles II gave a general pardon to his former enemies, he excepted those who had been directly concerned in the execution of his father. Two of the regicides, Edward Whalley and William Goffe, escaping to America, landed in Boston in 1660. Orders were received for their arrest and return to England. The people of New England, however, declined to give them up, for their sympathies had always been with the party opposed to the crown. Agents of the king pursued the fugitives, and the Indians were offered rewards to hunt them down. They had many narrow escapes; they hid in the woods; they concealed themselves for weeks in a cave; they were passed secretly from house to house by friends. The inhabitants of New Haven colony were especially zealous in protecting them from the king's officers. The king was, therefore, very much displeased with New Haven; he was already displeased with Massachusetts for its many acts of independence, and he thought to punish both colonies.

Whalley
and Goffe.
1660.

The king's
displeasur

All the New England colonies, except Massachusetts,

Connecticut's charter, 1662.

Rhode Island's charter, 1663.

Massachusetts refuses to obey the king.

Self-government.

Religious freedom.

existed without royal charters. Connecticut took the prudent course of asking Charles for a charter. The king in complying with the request put an end to the New Haven colony by annexing it to Connecticut. A royal charter was also given to Rhode Island.

Turning his attention to Massachusetts, Charles demanded that the laws of the colony be so changed that others besides church members be allowed to vote; that the Episcopal form of worship be permitted; and that the inhabitants be made to take the oath of allegiance to the king. But Massachusetts did not comply with these demands, and in 1664 commissioners with troops were sent over to enforce obedience. The colony stood firm, and the commissioners returned to England without accomplishing their purpose. War was then in progress between England and Holland, which prevented Charles for a time from taking further steps against Massachusetts.

138. The Charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island. — The charters granted Connecticut and Rhode Island were very liberal, guaranteeing to the inhabitants the liberties that they already enjoyed. The inhabitants elected their own officials and made their own laws, the king not even reserving the right of veto. The religious freedom prevailing in Rhode Island was guaranteed by a provision in the charter of that colony forbidding that any person be molested for holding his own opinion in matters of religion.

139. King Philip's War. — The annexation of New Haven to Connecticut left only three colonies composing the confederation of New England, but the union continued for some years longer. In 1675-1676 it was able to conquer in the most terrible Indian war that New Eng-

land experienced. As long as Massasoit, the chief of the Wampanoags, lived he kept faithfully the treaty that he had made with the Pilgrims at Plymouth. But he died in 1660, leaving two sons whom the English called Alexander and Philip. Soon after his father's death, Alexander, while returning from a visit to Plymouth, fell suddenly ill and died. Philip believed that his brother had been poisoned by the whites, and he laid plans to wreak his revenge. He spent some years in making preparations. In the summer of 1675 his warriors surprised a small town in the Plymouth colony, killing many of the inhabitants and committing all kinds of outrages. The Indians then scoured the country, murdering settlers and pillaging and burning villages. Race hatred stirred the savages. The Nipmunks took up the tomahawk, and the Narragansetts showed signs of joining in the work of destruction. But the prompt action of the commissioners of the confederation crippled the Narragansetts before they could strike a blow. The commissioners sent an army of one thousand volunteers from Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut to attack the Narragansetts at their fortified post on the site of South Kingston, Rhode Island. The stronghold was captured, and about a thousand Indians were slain. The war continued, however, until the summer of the following year, when Philip was surrounded and killed in a swamp on Mount Hope, a peninsula extending into Narragansett Bay. During the war, twelve towns in Plymouth and Massachusetts were totally destroyed and forty others suffered the miseries of Indian warfare.

The sons of
Massasoit.

Philip
makes war.
1675.

Philip slain.
1676.

140. **Revocation of the Charters. Rule of Andros.** — As Massachusetts still refused to comply with the demands of the king, its charter was revoked in 1684. The colony

Death of
Charles II,
1685.

Sir Edmund
Andros,
1686.

then became a royal province, but before Charles could assume control of it he died. His brother, James II, in order to control America more easily, planned to unite all the colonies under one government. In 1686 he sent over Sir Edmund Andros to be governor of New England. Rhode Island surrendered its charter, but Connecticut refused. In 1687 Andros went to Hartford to seize the charter that



SIR EDMUND ANDROS.

After the portrait in the State Library
at Hartford.

had been withheld. He met the general court and demanded the charter. Tradition says that in the heated discussion that followed, the lights were suddenly put out; when they were relighted, the charter could not be found, for it had been taken away and hidden in the hollow of an oak. Thereafter the tree was known as the Charter Oak. Andros not only annexed Connecticut to his domain, but the next year became governor of New York and New Jersey, so that his authority extended from

The Charter
Oak.

Maine to the Delaware. Andros had his seat of government at Boston. His rule was despotic; the general court, or legislature, was abolished, and exorbitant taxes were levied. Fortunately his power did not last long. James II fled from England in 1688, and when the news reached Boston in the spring of the following year, the people of Massachusetts threw Andros into prison.

Andros
in prison,
1689.

141. Restoration of the Charters.— Massachusetts did not regain the old charter under which it had been practically independent, but William and Mary granted another

in which the right of veto and that of appointing the governor were reserved to the crown. The charter granted all freemen the right to vote. Plymouth was annexed to Massachusetts, and New Hampshire was made a separate colony. The charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island were restored.¹

142. The Salem Witchcraft. — Even at the close of the seventeenth century it was common for people all over the civilized world to believe in witchcraft. Massachusetts had suffered much from Indian wars, terrible conflagrations, and scourges of smallpox. The belief that the colony was under some evil spell took hold of the people. The delusion spread like a contagious disease. In a paroxysm of terror, the colonists placed the blame on witches. The craze was so violent in Salem that in the year 1692 more than a hundred men and women were arrested on the charge of practicing witchcraft. Of this number nineteen were executed, mainly upon the flimsy testimony of children who afterward confessed that they had sworn falsely. Fortunately the delusion did not last long, and the poor creatures still confined in jail were released.

The Salem
witchcraft.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

106. NEW ENGLAND. — Unsuccessful attempts at colonization ; the Plymouth Company.

107. THE PILGRIM FATHERS. — Nonconformists and Separatists ; emigration to Holland ; America.

108. FOUNDING OF PLYMOUTH COLONY. — Support of the London Company ; the *Mayflower* ; December 21, 1620.

109. THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT.

¹ On account of the liberality of their charters, the people of Connecticut and Rhode Island retained the form of government which the charters provided, until long after the Revolution. It was not until 1818 that Connecticut adopted a state constitution, and not until 1842 that Rhode Island did so.

- 110-111. A WINTER OF GLOOM. FRIENDSHIP OF THE INDIANS. — Massasoit.
112. SLOW GROWTH OF THE COLONY. — Reasons.
113. THE GOVERNMENT OF PLYMOUTH. — Every freeman voted ; Plymouth annexed to Massachusetts Bay, 1691.
114. MASSACHUSETTS BAY. — Reasons for settlement ; compare with Plymouth colony.
- 115-116. CHARTER OF MASSACHUSETTS BAY COMPANY. — Governor Winthrop ; settlement of Boston.
117. CHURCH AND GOVERNMENT. — The Puritan Church ; the general court ; religious intolerance.
118. EARLY CUSTOMS AND LAWS. — Church ; military service ; punishments.
119. ROGER WILLIAMS. ANNE HUTCHINSON. — Religious and political teachings of Williams ; result ; preaching of Anne Hutchinson.
120. EDUCATION. — Harvard College, 1636.
121. SLAVERY. — First slave ship, 1636.
122. GROWTH OF THE COLONY. — Homes ; trade ; population.
- 123-124. FIRST SETTLEMENTS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE. — Feebleness of the colony.
125. THE DUTCH AND THE ENGLISH IN CONNECTICUT. — New Amsterdam.
126. EMIGRATION FROM MASSACHUSETTS. — Windsor and Wethersfield ; Hartford ; government.
127. THE PEQUOT WAR.
128. THE CONNECTICUT CONSTITUTION.
129. FOUNDING OF THE NEW HAVEN COLONY.
130. ROGER WILLIAMS AT PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND.
131. RELIGIOUS FREEDOM. — Compare the government with other colonies.
132. PORTSMOUTH AND NEWPORT SETTLED.
133. UNION OF THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES. — Purpose ; effect on England.
134. NEW ENGLAND TOWNS. — Education ; Eliot, the "Indian Apostle."
135. "PINE-TREE SHILLINGS."
136. PERSECUTION OF THE QUAKERS.
137. NEW HAVEN AND THE REGICIDES. — The Massachusetts Charter in Danger ; Charters granted to Connecticut and Rhode Island.
138. THE CHARTERS OF CONNECTICUT AND RHODE ISLAND.
139. KING PHILIP'S WAR. — Cause ; result.
140. REVOCATION OF THE CHARTERS. RULE OF ANDROS.
141. RESTORATION OF THE CHARTERS. — William and Mary.
142. THE SALEM WITCHCRAFT. — General belief in witches ; Salem delusion

CHAPTER VIII

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

NEW YORK

143. The Dutch on the Hudson. — The Dutch claimed the country from Massachusetts to the Delaware River. (See Sec. 49.) In 1613 they built a trading post on Manhattan Island, the site of New York city. In 1615 they built a fort near the site of Albany. They called the country New Netherland.

A Dutch
trading post
1613.

144. The First Settlers. — In order to reap the great profits that could be made in trading with the Indians for furs and skins, Dutch merchants organized the West India Company, and obtained from the government of Holland the right to control the trade with New Netherland and the right to govern the country. In 1623 the company sent out the first settlers. Some went to Manhattan Island; some to Long Island, where Brooklyn now stands; others went up the Hudson to the site of Albany, and built Fort Orange. A fort was also erected on the Delaware River, opposite Philadelphia, and another was begun on the Connecticut River, at Hartford.¹ With this line of forts the Dutch hoped to hold the territory against the claims of other nations.

The first
settlers, 1623

145. Purchase of Manhattan Island. — Peter Minuit was sent over as governor in 1625. In the following year he

Manhattan
purchased,
1626.

¹ The fort on the Connecticut was not completed until 1633. (See Sec. 125.)

Fort
Amsterdam.

purchased the island of Manhattan from the Indians for \$24. Fort Amsterdam was erected on the island, and to



NEW AMSTERDAM IN 1656.

After Van der Donck's *New Netherland*.

the group of huts already there the name of New Amsterdam was given, in compliment to the chief city of Holland.

146. **The Patroons.** — The growth of New Netherland was very slow. In 1628 only 270 people were living in New Amsterdam. Most of those who had sought the colony were traders, men who were coming and going all the time. The West India Company wanted farmers. In order to get them it made a rule that every member of the company who brought to the colony fifty settlers above fifteen years of age should receive the title of "Patroon" and a grant to a large tract of land. The colonists whom the patroon brought over had to rent land from him for ten years. The patroon furnished the necessary houses, implements, and cattle, and the tenant could not leave off culti-



DUTCH PATROON OR
LANDED PROPRIETOR.

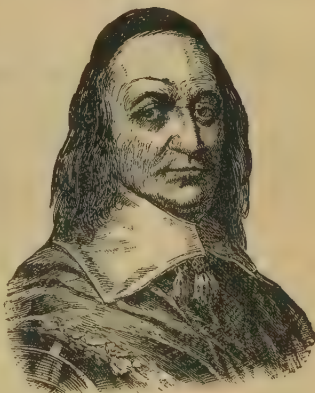
vating the patroon's land without the latter's consent, and could not sell his produce to any one else until the patroon had bought as much of it as he wanted. The plan did not work as well as the company had hoped. It was difficult to persuade farmers to give up their life of independence in Holland to become vassals in America. Besides, the granting of such large tracts of land to a few proprietors caused much discontent among the other settlers. The company, therefore, abandoned the practice of creating patroons, and offered to every person who would become a settler the right to own land. With this change there was some improvement in immigration, yet New Netherland grew but slowly.

A plan for
great estates

Plan fails to
work well.

147. English Settlers in New Netherland. — Men from New England not only crowded the Dutch out of the Connecticut valley, but settled on Long Island also, which was then under Dutch control. The New England settlers did not like the rule of the Dutch governor at New Amsterdam, and were constantly quarreling with him. The Dutch themselves were dissatisfied because the people were given no voice whatever in the government that the West India Company had provided for the colony.

English
settlers
crowding
against the
Dutch.



PETER STUYVESANT.

148. Peter Stuyvesant. — The most famous of the Dutch governors was Peter Stuyvesant, who came over in 1647.

After the portrait in the possession of the
New York Historical Society.

He had lost a leg in battle, and because he wore a wooden one bound with silver bands the people called him "old sil-

Stuyvesant's
character.

ver leg." Stuyvesant was a bluff old soldier, straightforward and honest; but he did not believe that the people were wise enough to govern themselves. He was obstinate in his opinions and ruled with an iron hand, vowing that he would hang any man who appealed to Holland from his decisions. Yet Stuyvesant had the welfare of New Netherland at heart. In 1655 he overpowered a Swedish colony that had settled on the Delaware River. (See Sec. 155.) In his contentions with the New Englanders, however, he was not so fortunate. Though he stormed at and threatened the settlers in the Connecticut valley, he knew that he was not strong enough to make them acknowledge the Dutch claim to that region.

149. **The Town of New Amsterdam.**—New Netherland in 1664 had a population of about ten thousand. Settle-



THE STADTHUYS, NEW AMSTERDAM.

After Brevoort's drawing.

ments in the interior had extended up the Hudson and as far westward as Schenectady. There were about sixteen hundred inhabitants in the town of New Amsterdam. The Dutch had allowed religious freedom, and thus had attracted to the colony people from all parts of the

A cosmopolitan town,
1643.

world. As early as 1643 eighteen languages could be heard in New Amsterdam. All public documents were published in Dutch, French, and English. New Amsterdam did not extend above Wall street. This street received its name from a wall, or wooden palisade, which stretched across the island to protect the town from inroads of the Indians. Dutch customs and Dutch ideas predominated. Many of

the houses were built of yellow brick, with the gable end facing the street, according to the custom in Holland. The floors were covered with white sand. The housekeeper, with the usual Dutch neatness, kept everything within doors scrupulously clean. In the town were gardens, orchards, and pastures. Many of the crooked streets that so bewilder the stranger who now visits New York were cow paths when the town was named New Amsterdam. Beyond the wall that inclosed the town were the "bouwer-
ies," as the Dutch called their farms. The Bowery

150. The English capture New Netherland. — The Dutch colony, situated between New England and the Southern colonies, prevented England from uniting her possessions in America and hindered her from enforcing the navigation laws. Moreover, New Amsterdam had one of the finest harbors in the world, and the Hudson River was a highway for bringing a great fur trade to the town. As England had never relinquished her claim to the territory, Charles II granted New Netherland to his brother James, Duke of York. In 1664 an English fleet and troops appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam. The city was in a defenseless condition, and its inhabitants were willing to surrender, but brave old Peter Stuyvesant wanted to fight. He stamped around on his wooden leg, declaring that "he had rather be carried a corpse to his grave" than to give up. Finding, however, that the people would not support him he was compelled to surrender. All the other Dutch settlements fell into the hands of the English, who now held the Atlantic coast from Maine to South Carolina. The names of the colony of New Netherland and the town of New Amsterdam were changed to New York in honor of the duke. Fort Orange was given the name Albany, also in honor of the duke, whose second title was Duke of Aibany.

New Amster-
dam surren-
dered to the
English in
1664, and
becomes
New York.

Dutch retake
New York,
1673.

War broke out between England and Holland. In 1673 a Dutch fleet retook the town almost as easily as the English had taken it nine years before. But when peace was declared the next year, New York was restored to England.

New York
annexed to
New Eng-
land, 1688.

151. Leisler's Revolution. — After the Duke of York became King James II, he annexed the colony of New York to New England. He had already united the colonies of New England under Sir Edmund Andros as governor. (See Sec. 140.) Francis Nicholson governed New York as deputy for Andros. When the news came that King James had been driven from the throne, the militia of New York deposed Nicholson. The leader of the militia, a German shopkeeper named Jacob Leisler, assumed control of the colony under the title of lieutenant governor. Leisler was a man of good intentions, but he was unaccustomed to governing, and he became tyrannical. In 1691 Colonel Henry Slaughter came over to serve as governor, having received the appointment from England's new sovereigns, William and Mary. He compelled Leisler to surrender the government to him. Leisler was then tried for treason and convicted. He appealed to the king, but before the king's decision could be received, Governor Slaughter was induced, while intoxicated, to sign Leisler's death warrant, and the unfortunate man was put to death.

Leisler in
control, 1690.

Leisler's
death.

Negro
insurrection,
1712.

152. Trouble with Slaves. — In 1712 an insurrection occurred among the negro slaves in New York, and some twenty of the leaders were executed. Again, in 1741, a report that the slaves had plotted to burn the town caused such alarm that thirty more were executed.

153. Growth of the Colony. — New York grew steadily under English rule. The colony had many royal governors, some of them good, but most of them bad; and as

was the case with other colonies, the assembly had constantly to strive against unjust taxation.

DELAWARE

154. The Swedes in America. — Another European nation turned its attention to America, with the hope of building up colonies. In 1638 a company, formed in Sweden for the purpose, sent out a party of colonists under the leadership of Peter Minuit, the man who as governor of New Netherland had bought Manhattan Island from the Indians. The Swedes sailed up Delaware Bay and built a fort on the site of Wilmington. They called their colony New Sweden and the fort Christiana, in grateful affection for their young queen, Christiana. The colony prospered. The Dutch complained that the Swedes were occupying their territory, but immigrants continued to arrive and settle along the Delaware River and Bay.

Wilmington
1638.

155. The Dutch capture New Sweden. — The Dutch and the Swedes began building forts along the Delaware, each hoping to force the other out of the territory. The Dutch built a fort on the Delaware below the Swedish forts. As it shut them off from communication with the sea, the Swedes took possession of it. Peter Stuyvesant was so indignant over the seizure of his fort that he raised an army, overpowered the Swedes, and made New Sweden a part of New Netherland. (1655.)

Stuyvesant
at war with
the Swedes,
1655.

156. Delaware given to William Penn. — When New Netherland passed into the hands of the English, the Delaware settlements were included. In 1682 the Duke of York gave Delaware to William Penn, and it was annexed to the colony of Pennsylvania. The inhabitants of the little colony were never satisfied with being a part

Delaware
& separate
colony, 1703.

of Pennsylvania, and in 1703 Delaware was made a separate colony with its own assembly. It continued, however, until the Revolution to be the property of the Penn family, and had the same governor as Pennsylvania.

NEW JERSEY

Elizabeth-
town settled,
1665.

157. The Government of Berkeley and Carteret. — The Duke of York gave the part of New Netherland lying between the Hudson and the Delaware to two of his friends, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The territory was called New Jersey in honor of Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey. The proprietors drew up a plan of government, guaranteeing to settlers an assembly and religious liberty. In 1665 Philip Carteret, a nephew of Sir George, arrived to act as governor. He brought English immigrants who founded Elizabethtown. Settlers from other colonies, especially Puritans from New England, were eager to secure lands under so liberal a government, and the part of New Jersey that lies near to New York was soon dotted with prosperous settlements.

Jersey
divided into
the Jerseys,
1674.

158. East and West Jersey. — It was not long before the colonists became involved in a quarrel with the proprietors regarding quitrents. Year after year they resisted the collection of these rents. Finally, Lord Berkeley, growing weary of the contention, sold his interest in the colony to a Quaker, through whom it passed to William Penn and other Quakers. In 1674 the king divided the colony into East Jersey and West Jersey, assigning East Jersey to Carteret and West Jersey to Penn and his associates.

159. The Quakers and the Puritans. — It was the purpose of the Quakers to found in West Jersey a colony for

members of their society. The first settlement was made in 1675 at Salem on the Delaware River. Others soon followed. After Sir George Carteret died, Penn and twenty-four associates purchased East Jersey from his heirs. The two Jerseys were continued under separate governments. The Quakers were in the majority in West Jersey and the Puritans in East Jersey, but the proprietors gave all Christians equal rights.

Penn and
associates
buy East
Jersey, 1682

160. New Jersey a Royal Colony. — By 1702 the proprietors had surrendered to the crown all of their rights. The Jerseys were then reunited and made a royal colony.



A QUAKER OF THE
17TH CENTURY.

PENNSYLVANIA

161. Penn and the King. — William Penn was a noted Quaker and one of the best of men. Though born to wealth, he was a friend of the lowly; though a favorite at court, he joined a religious sect that was despised and persecuted. New Jersey offered a retreat where distressed Quakers might find refuge, but Penn wished to found still another colony for his persecuted brethren. Charles II owed Penn a large sum of money, a debt originally due his father, who had been a distinguished admiral. Penn asked the king to grant him lands north of Maryland in payment of the debt. Charles, who had lands in abundance in America, but no money, gave Penn a charter making him proprietor of a territory which he called Pennsylvania.

Pennsyl-
vania, 1682

The Duke of York gives Delaware to William Penn.

In order that the new colony might have an outlet to the sea, Penn persuaded the Duke of York to give



WILLIAM PENN.

At the age of 22. After the portrait attributed to Sir Peter Lely.

him Delaware. At that time it was owned by the duke as a part of New York. Delaware and the southern part of Pennsylvania were within the limits of Maryland, as fixed by its charter, and Lord Baltimore protested against the loss of territory. But he protested in vain; the king of England thought it a small matter to give away the same land twice.

162. Settlement of Pennsylvania. Founding of Philadelphia. — Penn advertised his province extensively, offering land for sale at a low price. He declared that in his colony there should be



REDUCED FACSIMILE OF PART OF THE ROYAL DEED GIVEN TO PENN.

Penn's liberal policy.

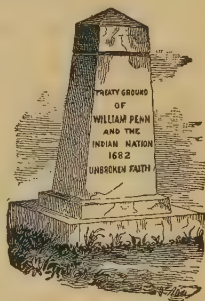
absolute freedom of conscience and equal justice to all men, Indians as well as whites. To the people who had already settled in his territory, he wrote, "You shall be

governed by laws of your own making, and live a free, and if you will, a sober and industrious people." The Quakers in England were enthusiastic over the liberal and humane plans of Penn, and the first shiploads which arrived in 1681, were quickly followed by many others. Penn himself came over in 1682 and founded Philadelphia, the "City of Brotherly Love."

Philadelphia
founded,
1682.

163. Penn and the Indians.—Penn immediately confirmed a friendship with the Indians of the surrounding country. The Indians who made the pledge of friendship to Penn never broke it, and the peace-loving Quakers kept theirs to the natives. It was not until many years later, when the settlers pushing into the interior of the colony met other tribes, that Pennsylvania suffered from Indian wars.

A binding
treaty, 1682.



PENN'S TREATY
MONUMENT.

There was such a rush of immigration that many families had to find shelter in caves along the river bank until houses could be built for them. Within three years the wilderness had changed to a thriving community of eight thousand souls. Philadelphia claimed two thousand inhabitants. Its streets, regularly laid out, were adorned by many substantial brick residences. Already a school for boys and girls had been set up by a Quaker teacher. His terms were, "To learn to read, four shillings a quarter; to write, six shillings."

Prosperity of
the colony.

Penn was delighted in his new home, but he had been there only two years when he was compelled to return to England, where persecuted Quakers needed his help. Fifteen years later he came back to the colony, but again he was unable to remain more than two years.

Penn returns
to England.

164. Death of Penn.—Though Penn endeavored to govern the colony justly, he did not satisfy the people of Pennsylvania, to whom the proprietary form of government was as distasteful as it had been to the people of the other colonies. The assembly and the deputy governor, who represented Penn, often quarreled. The discontent was increased by the unwillingness of the colonists to pay quitrents. Penn died, and the proprietary government passed to his three sons. At the time of the Revolution it was in the hands of his grandsons.

Death of
William
Penn, 1718.

165. Mason and Dixon's Line.—The dispute about the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland was finally settled, in 1767, when Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon completed the survey of the boundary line which has ever since been known as "Mason and Dixon's Line."

166. Rapid Growth of the Colony. The Germans and Scotch-Irish.—The immigration that set in so strongly with the founding of the colony, continued without interruption. Settlers came from all parts of the Christian world, and though Pennsylvania was the last colony to be settled, except Georgia, its growth was so rapid that at the outbreak of the Revolution only two colonies¹ had a greater population. Germans and Scotch-Irish were more numerous in Pennsylvania than in any other colony. They opened up the fertile valley of the Susquehanna and the country farther toward the mountains. Thence they poured like a steady stream into the interior of the Southern colonies. Enough of them, however, remained in Pennsylvania to constitute, in 1770, more than half the population of the colony.

¹ Virginia and Massachusetts.



TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 43. THE DUTCH ON THE HUDSON.
- 44. THE FIRST SETTLERS.
- 145. PURCHASE OF MANHATTAN ISLAND.
- 146. THE PATROONS. — Purpose of "patroon" rule ; plan ; operation.
- 147. ENGLISH SETTLERS IN NEW NETHERLAND.
- 148. PETER STUYVESANT. — Swedish colony ; New England.
- 149. NEW AMSTERDAM. — A cosmopolitan town ; Dutch customs and ideas.
- 150. THE ENGLISH CAPTURE NEW NETHERLAND. — England's twofold wish.
- 151. LEISLER'S REVOLUTION.
- 152. TROUBLE WITH SLAVES.
- 153. GROWTH OF COLONY.
- 154-156. THE SWEDES IN AMERICA. — New Sweden and Fort Christiana ;
the Dutch capture New Sweden ; Delaware given to William Penn.
- 157. THE GOVERNMENT OF BERKELEY AND CARTERET. — New Jersey ; plan
of government ; settlers.
- 158-160. EAST AND WEST JERSEY. — The Quakers and the Puritans.
- 161. PENN AND THE KING. — Penn's character ; the Pennsylvania Charter ;
Delaware.
- 162. SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA. — Founding of Philadelphia.
- 163-164. PENN AND THE INDIANS. — Immigration ; Philadelphia ; Penn's
return to England ; death.
- 165. MASON AND DIXON'S LINE.
- 166. RAPID GROWTH OF THE COLONY. THE GERMANS AND SCOTCH-IRISH.

CHAPTER IX

THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

Champlain
governor,
1608.

167. Champlain at the Head of the Government.

After Samuel de Champlain, governor of New France, or Canada, had founded Quebec (see Sec. 42) he began to explore. He made friends with the Indians around Quebec and joined them in war against the Iroquois of upper New York. This branch of the great Iroquois family, called by the whites the "Five Nations," because it was a confederacy of five tribes,¹ was the most powerful Indian organization east of the Mississippi. Champlain's mistake in arousing the hostility of the "Five Nations" was fortunate for the English; it prevented the French from occupying territory in New York at a time when the Dutch on the Hudson were too weak to offer opposition. Unable to go southward, Champlain pushed his explorations to the west. He explored the country far into the interior, and was the first white man to look upon the waters of the great lakes of Ontario and Huron.

Champlain
at war with
the "Five
Nations."

A great
explorer.

The Catholic
fathers.

168. Catholic Missionaries.—Champlain regarded the conversion of souls as more important than the making of an empire. He first secured the assistance of fathers of the Recollect Order, who built missions among the Indians of Canada. Jesuit missionaries, who followed the Recollects, were more active, and it was mainly through their

¹ After the Tuscarora tribe from North Carolina joined the confederacy (see note, page 75) it was called the "Six Nations."

zeal that the country now known as the Middle West was explored. These devoted men shunned no danger or hardship in carrying Christian teaching to the savage. They plodded through tangled forests and drifts of snow, and waded in ice-cold rivers; they went without food, and slept on the frozen ground; they faced even the greater danger of the tomahawk and scalping knife. Some suffered torture and death; yet they persevered until they had converted many of the Indians to Christianity. By 1634 their missions extended as far

as the neighborhood of Lake Huron. By 1641 they had reached the present state of Michigan.

169. French Traders. — But the missionaries were not

alone in exploring the West. Before 1660 French traders had gone into the Illinois country with beads, trinkets, and cloth to exchange with the Indians for skins and furs. Unlike the priests, they dared danger mainly for the sake of trade, but, like them, they won the friendship of the Indians for the French.



FRENCH FUR-TRADER.
After Darley.



A JESUIT FATHER.
After Bonanni.

170. Marquette on the Mississippi. — By the year 1672 the Jesuits had established missions on Lake Superior and southwestward as far as Illinois. In this remote wild

Other
explorers.

Marquette
and Joliet,
1673.

derness they heard the Indians speak about a great river to the west, and Father Marquette determined to find it. It was impossible for him to know that it was the Mississippi, for that river, at its nearest point seen by the Span-

iards, was hundreds of miles to the south. The river that Marquette was seeking was supposed to flow southwestward and empty into the Pacific Ocean. In 1673 Marquette and Louis Joliet, a man who had spent much of his life in the forest, set out for the unknown river, taking with them five boatmen.



JAMES MARQUETTE.

"Who with Louis Joliet discovered the Mississippi River at Prairie du Chien, July 17, 1673." From the statue by G. Trentenove, in the Rotunda of the Capitol, Washington.

They floated down the Wisconsin without seeing a sign of human life or hearing any sound but the lowing of the buffalo. In seven days they came to the Mississippi, and floated on until they reached a point below the Arkansas. Here, becoming satisfied that the river did not flow toward the Pacific, but emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, Marquette abandoned further exploration and turning his canoes, began the slow ascent. He succeeded in reaching the shores of Lake Michigan. But his health had failed; he died on the bank of a lonely river in Michigan, and was buried there by his companions.

171. La Salle on the Mississippi. — At a very early age Robert de la Salle, a native of France, had emigrated to Canada. He soon became a well-known explorer, and so extended the bounds of New France by his discoveries

that the king created him a nobleman and conferred upon him benefits that made him a rich man. Craving greater

La Salle prepares to explore the Mississippi valley.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE FRENCH EXPLORATIONS.

fame, however, he obtained permission to explore and colonize the Mississippi valley. Two attempts to conduct an expedition from Canada to the Mississippi failed, and cost

La Salle's
voyage to the
mouth of the
Mississippi,
1682.

La Salle the loss of his wealth; yet he set out a third time. In his party were a missionary and about fifty Frenchmen and Indians. Reaching the Mississippi early in 1682, the explorer floated down the river to its mouth. Here La Salle erected a cross and claimed for King Louis all of the Mississippi valley, which he called Louisiana.

His journey back to Canada was slow and beset with difficulties. From Quebec he went to France, where the king received him with favor. Although the country which La Salle had explored was claimed by Spain, the French king, realizing the importance of holding the Mississippi Valley, placed La Salle in command of an expedition for planting a colony at the mouth of the river. La Salle's colonists, numbering about three hundred, sailed from France in a squadron of four vessels.



ROBERT CAVALIER SIEUR DE LA
SALLE.

La Salle in
Texas, 1685.

They failed to find the mouth of the Mississippi and landed at Matagorda Bay, in Texas. Here their supply ship was wrecked and their fleet deserted them. They then endeavored to reach the Mississippi overland. Finally, when death had reduced the colonists to about forty, La Salle determined to journey on foot to Canada, nearly two thousand miles away, to get aid for his suffering people. He started with sixteen men. When near the Trinity River, in Texas, La Salle was assassinated by one of his companions who had mutinied.

Death of
La Salle.

172. Settlements in the Southwest. — Eleven years

passed after the death of La Salle before another attempt was made to settle the province of Louisiana. In 1698 the king sent out about two hundred settlers, with a Canadian named Iberville as governor. Iberville began a settlement at Biloxi (now in Mississippi) in 1699, and in 1702 laid the foundations of the city of Mobile. In 1718 Bienville, the brother of Iberville, settled fifty persons on the east bank of the Mississippi River. This little hamlet marked the beginning of the city of New Orleans.

Pierre
Le Moyne
of Iberville.

Jean Baptiste
Le Moyne
of Bienville.

173. Canada and Louisiana. — Communication was kept up between Canada and Louisiana, for in the north Frenchmen had founded Detroit and extended their settlements down into Indiana. The French colonies were never strong, however, as very few settlers came over from France. The population was made up mostly of Indian traders. The settlements were far apart; most of them comprised only a fort, a mission, and a few surrounding farms. The development of the French colonies was in marked contrast to that of the English. The people of the English colonies had come to America to build up new communities, and their settlements spread no faster than the increase of population demanded.

Character of
the French
settlement.

174. First French War. — England and France were almost constantly at war for many years following the accession of William and Mary to the English throne. Hostilities extended to the colonies. The two nations were struggling for the first place among the powers of the world, and the question of which should control America became important. The first three colonial wars are respectively known in America by the names of the reigning sovereigns of England. King William's War lasted from 1689 to 1697. French and Indians burned towns and murdered settlers on the frontiers of New England and

King
William's
War,
1689-1697

Port Royal
taken, 1690.

New York. In 1690 the New England colonists, commanded by the governor of Massachusetts, Sir William Phipps, captured Port Royal¹ in Acadia,² but the following year the town was retaken by the French. During the remainder of the war the Northern colonies were engaged in defending their settlements from the raids of the French and Indians, who succeeded in sacking towns within twenty-five miles of Boston.

Queen
Anne's War,
1702-1713.

175. The Second French War. — The next war, known as Queen Anne's War, lasted from 1702 to 1713. As Spain was allied with France in this contest, the colony of South Carolina determined to attack St. Augustine. In 1702 Governor Moore, at the head of a party of colonists and friendly Indians, easily took the town. He then laid siege to the fort, but when a strong Spanish fleet appeared, he burned the town and his own ships and returned overland to Charleston. In 1706 a French fleet, aided by Spaniards, attempted to capture Charleston, but the Carolinians attacked the invaders and drove them away.

French and Indians again ravaged the frontiers of the Northern colonies. Once more New Englanders captured Port Royal. When peace was declared, England retained Acadia. It was then that Acadia became Nova Scotia and Port Royal, Annapolis.

176. Spanish Invasion. Third French War. — After a peace of about twenty-five years, Great Britain again went to war with Spain. In 1742 the Spanish governor at St. Augustine, with a fleet of fifty vessels and an army of about five thousand men, appeared off St. Simons Island for the purpose of capturing the fort at Frederica and destroying the young colony of Georgia. General Oglethorpe, who was still in charge of the colony, had only about six

¹ Now Annapolis.

² Now Nova Scotia.

hundred men and a few small vessels to oppose the invasion, but he won a decisive victory. This was the last attempt of the Spaniards upon the Southern colonies.

Spaniards
defeated by
Oglethorpe,
1742.

While the war with Spain was in progress, Great Britain became engaged in hostilities with France, also. This war with France lasted from 1744 to 1748, and was known in America as King George's War. The French in Canada and their Indian allies renewed their border warfare. The chief event of the contest was the capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, by New England troops in 1744. There was much disappointment among the people of New England when, at the close of the war, Louisburg was returned to the French.

King
George's
War,
1744-1748.

At the end of the third French war the boundaries of the British and French possessions in America were the same as when the first war began, except that Great Britain retained Nova Scotia.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

167. CHAMPLAIN AT THE HEAD OF THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT IN AMERICA. — The Five Nations ; exploration ; Lakes Ontario and Huron
- 168, 169. CATHOLIC MISSIONARIES and FRENCH TRADERS.
170. MARQUETTE ON THE MISSISSIPPI. — The exploration abandoned.
171. LA SALLE ON THE MISSISSIPPI. — Honored for earlier discoveries ; expeditions to the Mississippi ; Louisiana ; failure to plant a colony ; death of La Salle.
172. SETTLEMENTS IN THE SOUTHWEST. — Iberville and Mobile ; Bienville and New Orleans.
173. CANADA AND LOUISIANA. — Population and character of French settlements ; compare with English colonies.
174. FIRST FRENCH WAR. — Cause ; King William's War.
175. SECOND FRENCH WAR. — Queen Anne's War ; fighting in North and South ; England's new possessions.
176. SPANISH INVASION. THIRD FRENCH WAR. — Spanish attack on Georgia ; King George's War ; Louisburg ; result of the French wars.

CHAPTER X

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

Conflicting
claims to the
Ohio valley.

177. The Ohio Valley. Washington. — The last colonial war, known as the French and Indian War, had its cause and origin in America. The Ohio valley was claimed by both Great Britain and France, and the colonies of each nation were desirous of securing control of it.

Major
George
Washington.

The French were the more active. Having built a chain of forts along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and beyond to the Mississippi, they took steps in 1753 to occupy the Ohio valley by erecting a line of forts southward from Lake Erie through the part of Pennsylvania that lies west of the Alleghany Mountains. Both Virginia and Pennsylvania claimed the territory thus threatened, and their governors were directed to warn the French that they were trespassing upon land belonging to the king of Great Britain, and to order them to leave. Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia chose for his messenger Major George Washington, who, though only twenty-one, had shown such aptness for military affairs that he had been made adjutant general of the Virginia militia. Washington, with a guide and a few companions, made the long journey in the depth of winter, and delivered the letter to the French near Lake Erie. They not only declined to retire, but the next year reached farther southward and erected Fort Duquesne on the site of the present city of Pittsburg. Virginia now prepared to defend her territory, and Wash-

ington, in command of about 150 men, advanced in the direction of Fort Duquesne. Near the Great Meadows in Pennsylvania he came upon a French scouting party; a skirmish followed, May 28, 1754, and the English killed or captured all but one of the enemy.

Washington
advances.

178. Surrender of Fort Necessity.—Washington then built a fortification which he called Fort Necessity, and awaited reënforcements from Virginia. These came slowly, however, and he had only three hundred men when he was attacked, July 3, 1754, by the French in force. He was compelled to surrender, but with the understanding that he should be allowed to march out with the honors of war.

Washington
capitulates,
July 3, 1754

Great Britain now held nothing west of the Alleghany Mountains. Her colonies had waited too long, and the French had placed a strong force in the Ohio valley.

179. The Albany Congress. Franklin's Plan of Union.—The population of the English colonies vastly outnumbered that of the French, but the English were under one great disadvantage. Each colony was engrossed in its own affairs, and some of them were in constant quarrels with their governors; moreover, some of the colonies had conflicting claims to the territory that the French coveted. As a consequence, the colonies did not act together in matters concerning the common good. In order to provide for concerted action against the French, a congress met in Albany



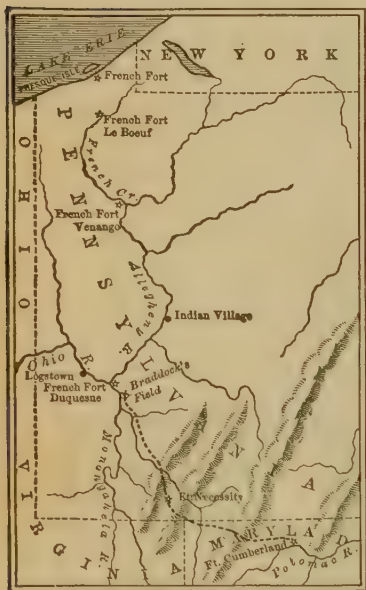
Device printed in Franklin's "Pennsylvania Gazette," 1754.

in 1754. Delegates from seven colonies attended. A plan of union, framed by Benjamin Franklin, was adopted. It provided for a federal government that should have a chief executive, or "president general," appointed by the

The colonies
try to unite.
1754-

crown, and a congress, or "grand council," elected by the colonies. The plan was not carried into effect: the crown thought it gave too much power to the colonies, and the colonies thought it gave too much power to the crown.

180. Braddock's Defeat. — In 1755 General Edward Braddock, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, arrived in Virginia. Though Great Britain and France were at peace, the British government desired that Braddock should drive the French from the Ohio valley. Braddock's plan was to capture Fort Duquesne and then, moving northward, to conquer Canada. He was a soldier of the highest personal bravery, but was ill suited for the task before him. Accustomed to the well-disciplined armies of Europe, he had no confidence in the colonial militia. The idea that savages could defeat British regulars seemed to him so preposterous that he treated with contempt the warning of American officers that Indians did not fight in open battle but sought



ROUTE OF BRADDOCK'S EXPEDITION.

Braddock would fight savages according to the rules of war.

to take their foes by surprise. With an army of two thousand regulars and militia and a train of artillery, he set out for Fort Duquesne. Washington accompanied him as aid. The army stretched out for miles as it toiled through forests and over mountains. It made slow progress because Braddock undertook to construct a perma-

nent road as he went. He felled trees, bridged every stream, and leveled every rise of ground.

On July 9, 1755, just as the advance troops passed a ravine within a few miles of the fort, the French and their Indian allies, concealed behind trees and rocks, poured a deadly volley upon three sides of the British column, throwing it into great disorder. The rest of the troops coming up only added to the confusion. The Virginia militia were accustomed to such a mode of warfare and sought shelter from which they could fight the enemy on even terms, but the regulars were slaughtered in great numbers. They were so huddled together that they even fired upon one another. Braddock ordered a retreat, and in his attempt to keep the retreat from becoming a rout, was wounded. The regulars fled panic-stricken. Washington, always in the thick of the fight, placed himself at the head of the Virginians, and prevented the beaten army from being destroyed. General Braddock died on the retreat.

The French and Indians fight in their own way.

Braddock's defeat.

Braddock's death.

181. War Declared. — Two years after fighting began in America, war was formally declared between Great Britain and France. Almost every nation in Europe became involved in the war. The campaigns of the years 1756 and 1757 in America resulted only in defeats for the British. Their generals were inefficient, while the French commander, General Montcalm, was active and skillful. Montcalm captured Oswego and Fort William Henry, important posts in upper New York. Indians constantly attacked the northern frontier.

The efficient Montcalm.

182. British Successes. — William Pitt, one of the world's greatest statesmen, came to the head of the British government in 1757. He took charge of the war, and his vigorous measures effected a great change. In America, the British captured Fort Duquesne and Fort Frontenac in

British
successes
under Pitt.

1758, and Fort Niagara in 1759. These captures gave them complete control of the Ohio valley.

The British also captured Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, in 1758, and forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point, in northern New York, in 1759.

183. Fall of Quebec. — In the summer of 1759 the British general, James Wolfe, ascended the St. Lawrence for the purpose of attacking Quebec. He had an army of about eight thousand men. Quebec is divided into an upper and lower town. The upper town was defended by the strongest fortress in America, built on a high cliff of rock that rises almost perpendicularly from the river. The lower town Montcalm had fortified with strong works. Wolfe, knowing that it would be folly to assault, spent two months in trying to draw Montcalm out of his works to battle, but without success. Finally, it was determined to attempt the ascent of the lofty cliff which the British knew was but feebly guarded. Wolfe moved his army to a point above the town, where, under the cover of darkness, the troops disembarked and began the steep ascent by a path too narrow for two to go abreast. Some of the men had to pull themselves up by means of branches of trees and projecting rocks. At dawn on September 13 Wolfe had four thousand men on the Plains of Abraham, the plateau upon which the upper town stands. Montcalm, surprised to find the town threatened from a side which he had thought safe from attack, saw that he must now fight or lose Quebec. His army, though almost equal in numbers to Wolfe's, was much inferior in training; yet he lost no time in making an impetuous attack. The French could not break the British lines, and fell back into the town, retreating the same night up the river in great disorder. Wolfe and Montcalm were killed. The

The Plains
of Abraham.

The fall
of Quebec,
Sept. 13, 1759.



CENTRAL NORTH AMERICA, 1755
AT THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.



CENTRAL NORTH AMERICA, 1763
AFTER THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.
 (ACCORDING TO PEACE OF PARIS)

garrison remaining in the town surrendered within a few days. In the next year the British easily captured Montreal, and all Canada fell into their hands.

184. Treaty of Peace. — The fall of Canada practically put an end to the war in America, though hostilities continued for some time in other parts of the world. Spain had become involved in the war against Great Britain, and in 1762 Havana, the capital of the Spanish province of Cuba, was captured by the British. In 1763 a treaty of peace was signed by all three countries. By the terms of the treaty, France ceded to Great Britain Canada and all of the country between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi except "the island of New Orleans," which, with all of Louisiana, France had previously ceded to Spain. Great Britain returned Havana to Spain, and received Florida in exchange. French power in North America was thus completely wiped out, leaving Great Britain and Spain the only possessors of territory on the continent. Great Britain now owned all the continent east of the Mississippi, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Polar regions. Spain owned the country westward from the Mississippi and southward through Mexico.

The French
lose their
territory in
America.

185. Pontiac's Conspiracy. — Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, an Indian tribe living near the Great Lakes, had seen with anxiety the expulsion of his French friends from Canada. He was shrewd enough to realize that, while French traders would never drive his people from the western country, English settlers would crowd them out; but the Indian trait of self-confidence deceived him into the belief that he might prevent the English from occupying the West. Besides, he still hoped that the French would come back to America and help him. In 1763 Pontiac persuaded a number of tribes of the North-

Pontiac's
war on the
English.

west and the lower Mississippi valley, former allies of the French, to join in a war upon the outlying posts and settlements of the English. Almost every fort in the Northwest was captured and its garrison massacred. Attacks were made upon settlements on the frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia. Finally the hostile Indians, finding themselves vigorously pressed by troops sent to the relief of the region, agreed to terms of peace.

The colonies
growing
strong.

186. Effects of the French Wars.—The colonial wars had most important effects upon the English colonies. They trained the colonial soldiers to warfare; they brought the colonies into closer touch with one another and made it easier for them to unite in time of danger; they removed from the colonial borders the hostile French who constantly threatened to stop the natural expansion of the colonies. In humbling the power of France, Great Britain had so strengthened her own colonies as to make it possible for them to assert and maintain their right to independence.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 177. THE FRENCH IN THE OHIO VALLEY.**—Virginia's claim; Washington's negotiations; Fort Duquesne.
- 178. SURRENDER OF FORT NECESSITY.**—British possessions in America.
- 179. THE ALBANY CONGRESS.**—Franklin's Plan of Union.
- 180. BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT.**
- 181. WAR DECLARED.**
- 182. BRITISH SUCCESSES.**—The Ohio valley.
- 183. FALL OF QUEBEC.**—Wolfe's plan of attack; the British control Canada.
- 184. TREATY OF PEACE.**—Division of America.
- 185. PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY.**
- 186. EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH WARS.**

CHAPTER XI

LIFE IN THE COLONIES (1763). SETTLEMENT OF THE WEST (1763-1776)

187. The Thirteen Colonies. Population. — At the close of the French and Indian War, more than a century and a half had passed since John Smith and his associates planted at Jamestown the first permanent English settlement in America. The thirteen colonies, though a mere fringe along the Atlantic coast, were now firmly established, with a population of about a million and a half. Growth. Nearly all the people were of English descent, though other elements were strong in certain sections, as the Dutch in New York, the Irish, Scotch-Irish, and Germans in Pennsylvania, and French Huguenots in South Carolina.

188. The Governments of the Colonies. — Politically every colony was independent of the others. Each colony had its own assembly and its own governor.¹ The assembly consisted of the council and delegates, generally sitting as separate houses. Council and delegates. In some cases the governor appointed the members of the council, but the people always elected the delegates. Taxes for the support of the colonial government were laid by the assembly, but the governor could veto any act of that body, and also had the power to prorogue² or even dissolve it whenever he saw fit.

¹ Except Delaware, which, while it had its own assembly, had the same governor as Pennsylvania.

² *Prorogue*: to discontinue the meetings for a time.

The three forms.

The colonies may be divided, according to their forms of government, into three classes: 1. The royal colonies — New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia; 2. The proprietary colonies — Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland; 3. The charter colonies — Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts.

The royal colony.

In a royal colony the king appointed the governor, who usually appointed the members of the council. Such acts of the assembly as the governor signed had to be sent to the king for final approval.

The proprietary colony.

In a proprietary government the proprietary appointed the governor. The king retained the right to veto laws passed by the assemblies of Pennsylvania and Delaware, but relinquished it in the case of Maryland.

The charter colony.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island held charters from the king guaranteeing a complete system of self-government. The governor and all other officials were elected by the people, and the king could not veto the laws of the assembly. The charter of Massachusetts was not so liberal. While it guaranteed to the colony many rights, the king appointed the governor and reserved the privilege of vetoing acts of the assembly.

Church support compulsory.

189. The Established Church. — In the New England colonies, except in Rhode Island, every person was taxed to support the Congregationalist (Puritan) Church. In the South, and in the middle colonies except Pennsylvania and Delaware, the king required that the Episcopal Church be supported by public funds, although in no colony were the members of that church in the majority.

Negro slavery.

190. Slaves and Indentured Servants. — There were negro slaves in every colony. In the North, where the climate was severe and the farms small, slave labor was

not profitable, and except in New York, slaves were few. In the Northern states slaves were generally made house servants. It was in the broad fields of the Southern plantations that slaves were worked in large numbers.

White servants, bound for a term of years, were also to be found in every colony. Many persons convicted of crime in England had been sent to the colonies. The colonists bought the services of these unfortunate men and women, and for the length of time specified in the contract, usually from four to six years, the white servant was as much a slave as the negro. If he attempted to run away or committed any misdemeanor, his term of service was lengthened. Besides the hardened criminals, there were some who had committed only slight offenses, while still others were merely political prisoners. Then, too, young boys and girls were sometimes kidnapped by ruffians in the great cities of England; and sold to the colonists.

White
slavery.

There was yet another class of bond servants. Often-times men who wished to emigrate to America, but who were too poor to do so, would voluntarily sell themselves into a term of servitude for the cost of their passage across the ocean. Servants of this class were called "redemptioners."

Redemp-
tioners.

191. Divisions of Society. -- One of the most prominent features of colonial life was the sharp distinction made between the different classes. For instance, people sat in church according to their social rank. In New England the upper class occupied the front pews; the middle class sat next; then came the humbler folk; and finally, the slaves and indentured servants in the rear or in the gallery. In Virginia the arrangement was very often the reverse, the leading families occupying pews in the gallery and everybody else having seats in the lower part of the church. In New England only persons of the higher class

The classes.

were addressed as "Mr." and "Mrs."; for the great mass of the people, "goodman" and "goodwife" were deemed sufficient.

192. Social Life in the Colonies. — It is estimated that as late as 1750 four fifths of the plantations of the South were on navigable streams. The planter, who received his

In the South.



A VIRGINIA MANSION PARTY.

as yet no need of towns. Therefore, with the exception of Charleston, there was no town of particular importance in the South. The planters, living far apart, relieved the quietness of their lives by entertaining the passing stranger and by giving grand balls, which were attended by guests from miles around. The planter and his family spent the winter months in the colonial capital, where the session of the assembly

furnished political interest, and balls, tea parties, and the governor's receptions, a round of gayety.

In New
England.

In New England, where homes were close together and neighbors saw one another every day, there was no occasion for the lavish entertaining that was practiced in the South. Besides, the descendants of the early Puritans departed from the stern customs of their fathers only so far as to permit a few amusements. Ladies paid neighborly visits, and while working at their knitting, discussed the news of the town. A family might spend a winter

evening at a friend's fireside, "chatting, eating nuts and apples, and enjoying a quiet time." If there was work to be done requiring help, the neighbors were called in and a holiday was made of the occasion. Friends gathered to clear a new field, to build a house, or to take part in corn-husking or quilting parties. After the work they completed the day with a big dinner. Nothing showed the influence of Puritanism more strongly than the way in which New Englanders observed Sunday, or the Sabbath, as they always called it. The Sabbath began at six o'clock on Saturday afternoon and continued until sunset on Sunday. During that time all labor was suspended. No moving about the streets was allowed except to attend church. If two or three persons stopped on the streets to converse, officers of the law dispersed them. The roads and ferries in the country were carefully guarded and every passing traveler was arrested. The inns were closed, that a traveler might not be entertained. It was unlawful even to carry a bundle on the streets. Everybody was expected to attend church. The church building was seldom heated, but no matter how cold the weather, the congregation sat through the sermon and prayers that together lasted four hours.

Sabbath
observance.



COSTUMES OF THE DUTCH.

The social life of the middle colonies was similar to that of New England, except that, instead of the somber spirit of Puritanism, there was the cheerful influence of the

In the
middle
colonies.

Landed
gentry.

Dutch, the Germans, and the Irish. In New York, among the descendants of the old Dutch patroons, there was a form of society more like that of the nobility of Europe than was seen anywhere else in America. The large estates made these people very wealthy and enabled them to live in lordly style. They farmed out their land to tenants. They lived in fine houses and had a great retinue of servants and slaves. Following the fashion of the English nobles, they gave a feast once or twice a year to the people living on their estates.

The early
printing
press.

193. Newspapers. Literature. — There were few newspapers, and none of them were dailies. As early as 1639 a printing press had been brought to Massachusetts. All presses were worked by hand, and one of them could hardly print in six working days, as many papers as the modern press can print in fifteen minutes.

Authors.

The colonists usually imported their books. The most popular books were the ancient classics and the works of standard English writers. The colonial period in America produced few authors of enduring fame. Two stand pre-eminent, — Jonathan Edwards of Massachusetts and Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania. Edwards wrote mainly on religious subjects, and his great work, "The Freedom of the Will," has never been excelled in its field. The wise sayings of Franklin, which he published in his "Poor Richard's Almanac," will probably be quoted for all time.

The
stagecoach.

194. Modes of Travel. — Travel overland was usually made on foot, on horseback, or in a light sulky. The stagecoach, a large, cumbersome carriage, drawn by four or six horses, and capable of carrying half a dozen passengers, had been introduced some years previously as a means of conveyance between a few of the larger towns, but was not yet in general use. It required three days

for the stagecoach to make the ninety miles between New York and Philadelphia. If the heavy vehicle stuck in the mud, as it often did in wet weather, the passengers were expected to alight and assist in pulling it out. In New England and the middle colonies the family traveled in the chaise; in the South the planter had a coach and four.

The roads in the remote interior were mere bridle paths, and travel, when not on foot, was usually on horseback, the wife and children being seated on a pillion behind the rider. On the occasion of a wedding the bride rode to the church on a pillion behind her father and rode away on a pillion behind her husband. In New England

the farmer of the rural districts carried his produce to town on sleds in winter and on ox carts in summer. In Virginia, the man who lived away from a navigable stream hitched his mule or ox to a hogshead of tobacco, through which an axle had been run, and hauled it to the nearest wharf.

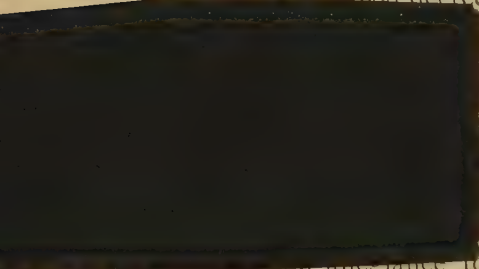
Marketing
the crop.

195. The Western Country.—The region between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River was still (1763) a vast wilderness, broken only by a few small settlements a great distance apart, with here and there an isolated fort. As the small number of Frenchmen in this territory had come by way of Canada or the Mississippi, their settlements were at points remote from the English colonies. The country between was uninhabited by the white man. The chief settlements were Detroit, Kaskaskia, and Vincennes. There was not a settlement within the present limits of Ohio, Kentucky, or Tennessee. The British government, fearing that the colonies, if allowed to expand

The Far
West.

The
proclamation
line.

beyond the mountains, might become too strong to be controlled, determined to abandon the entire western country to the Indians. In 1763 the king issued a proclamation forbidding colonists to settle beyond a line drawn around the head waters of all rivers emptying into the Atlantic. This act meant that the colonies were to be confined to the narrow strip between the Alleghanies and the ocean. Regardless of the royal decree, the restless population pushed



essee. — In 1769 William Bean's way across the mountains and Watauga River. He was soon followed and a number of other emigrants. Numerous settlements sprang up. The settlers were unwilling to acknowledge allegiance to the royal authority in North Carolina, so they formed a government of their own in

1772, calling it the "Watauga Association." After North Carolina organized a government independent of Great Britain, the state abolished the association in 1778, and incorporated the territory into Washington County.

197. Settlement of Kentucky.

— In the same year that William Bean moved into Tennessee, Daniel Boone, the most famous of all frontiersmen, left his home in North Carolina and began to explore the lands of Kentucky. In 1774 James Harrod founded Harrodsburg, the first town in Kentucky.



DANIEL BOONE.

Daniel
Boone.

Kentucky
settled,
1774.

Indians made war on the first settlers; but the defeat of the Shawnees, the leading tribe, caused all the other tribes to sue for peace. In 1775 the settlers, calling their country "Transylvania," organized a government; but as the settlements were within the limits of Virginia, that state, in 1776, formed them into the County of Kentucky.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

187. THE THIRTEEN COLONIES. — Population.
188. THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONIES. — Royal, proprietary, and charter colonies; difference in form of government.
189. THE ESTABLISHED CHURCH.
190. SLAVES AND INDENTURED SERVANTS. — Redemptioners.
191. DIVISIONS OF SOCIETY. — Class distinction.
192. SOCIAL LIFE IN THE COLONIES. — Compare life in South and North; reasons for difference; the middle colonies.
193. NEWSPAPERS. LITERATURE. — Edwards and Franklin.
194. MODES OF TRAVEL. — Slowness and difficulty of travel.
195. THE WESTERN COUNTRY. — Settlement discouraged; reason; the proclamation line.
196. SETTLEMENT OF TENNESSEE. — The Watauga Association; Washington County.
197. SETTLEMENT OF KENTUCKY.



BOONE'S TRAIL.

PART III.—THE REVOLUTION

1761-1783

CHAPTER XII

THE INJUSTICE OF THE ROYAL GOVERNMENT

198. British Colonial Policy. — The government of England had always claimed the right to make any laws or regulations it saw fit for governing the colonies; yet so long as the colonies were young and feeble it neglected them. The early colonists had planted their settlements without help from the home government, and without help they had driven back the Indians. Through their own exertions they prospered, and built up trade with many parts of the world, yet hardly had they been able to do so before parliament made laws which were intended to give British merchants the control of the colonial trade.

199. Laws of Navigation and Trade. — The first of the "Acts of Navigation and Trade" that sought to control the trade of America was passed by parliament as early as 1660 (see Sec. 68). Other statutes, making the law more binding, were passed from time to time. As they forbade the colonies to ship to other countries such products as Great Britain needed, or to import many products except through Great Britain, these laws, if they had been enforced, would have placed the colonies at the mercy of

The
unaided
colonies.

The
colonies
flourishing.

Colonial
trade
restricted.

British merchants. The price of nearly everything the colonists bought or sold would have been fixed in London.

200. Manufactures Forbidden. — Not only were Americans forbidden to manufacture articles for sale in foreign countries, but also, in order to compel them to buy from Great Britain, they were prohibited or discouraged from manufacturing for themselves.

More
restrictions

201. The Laws Evaded. — The colonial policy of Great Britain was in accordance with the view, accepted by all nations in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, that the trade and manufactures of colonies should be controlled in the interest of the mother country. Few statesmen of Europe could then be found who would deny that the system was proper. The policy of Great Britain was more liberal than that of other nations, for while laws were passed to secure a monopoly of the colonial trade, other laws were passed to build up that trade. For instance, tobacco grown in her colonies could be shipped only to Great Britain, yet the British people were allowed to consume no tobacco except such as came from British colonies. The system was objectionable to Americans because they naturally wished to trade where they could do so to the greatest advantage to themselves.

The efforts to enforce the navigation laws caused much irritation in the colonies and would have led to serious trouble sooner had it not been for the fact that the colonists easily evaded the laws. The long series of wars in which Great Britain was engaged kept her too busy to enforce them rigidly. The colonists would not conform to them, but carried on an extensive commerce, not only between one colony and another, but with the outside world. This trade was "smuggling," and was punishable in the courts; but as public opinion did not

Smuggling.

uphold the restrictive laws, many persons, especially the New Englanders, engaged in it and made great fortunes.

The king.

202. The Colonial Governors. — The king sometimes interfered with the internal affairs of a colony, and made un-

The
governors.



KING GEORGE III.

wise regulations for its government (see Sec. 189), and he vetoed beneficial laws passed by its assembly (see Sec. 205). The governors sent over to the colonies were often unsuited for the work. Some of them were dishonest, others inefficient. Many of them were bent on forcing upon the colonies the objectionable measures of the king and parliament. Naturally there was constant quarreling between the assemblymen and the governor; but the assemblymen usually had

their way, for they paid the governor his salary, and would withhold it unless he acted to their liking.

The colonies
loyal.

203. The Conflict Approaching. — The colonists, in opposing the action of the home government, had always asserted that they had the same right as other Englishmen to manage their own affairs. They were proud of being Englishmen, and although they resented the unjust course pursued toward them, they willingly acknowledged their allegiance to the mother country. Then, too, the long years of warfare against their common enemy, the French, while preventing Great Britain from rigidly enforcing her laws, had served to hold the affections of the colonists to the mother country. Before the close of the French and Indian War, however, events hastened the conflict between the two countries.

204. Writs of Assistance.—To enforce the laws of navigation and trade against the smugglers, admiralty courts had been established in which those accused of violating the law were tried by judges without juries. If the accused were found guilty, their goods were forfeited and sold, and as the officers of the court shared in the proceeds of the sales, dishonest officials made many wrongful seizures. To give the admiralty court even greater power, "writs of assistance" were issued. These writs gave authority to officers to search the house of any one suspected of violating the law, and to compel citizens to assist in the search. Great indignation was aroused in the commercial colonies, which were chiefly affected by the writs. Boston took the lead in the opposition.

The admiralty courts.

"Invasion."

Boston leads in opposition.

James Otis in 1761.

In 1761, James Otis, a lawyer of Boston, representing some of the merchants of the town, appeared before the Superior Court of Massachusetts to argue against the issuance of the writs. He asserted that "no act of parliament can establish such a writ" and that "an act of parliament against the Constitution is void." The writs continued to be issued, but were thenceforth little used. The effect of Otis's bold speech reached the remotest colony and set the people to thinking that they should assert their rights by force, if necessary.

205. The Crown Arbitrary.—The king's arbitrary conduct was causing dissatisfaction in other colonies. Virginia and South Carolina, alarmed at the rapid increase of slaves, passed, in 1761, acts restricting their importation; but the king "negatived," or vetoed, the laws, as many persons in England were growing rich from the slave trade. Other acts for restricting the traffic were vetoed.

Discontent in other colonies.

In the same year a chief justice for New York was

New York
refuses a
salary to the
chief justice.

appointed to hold office during the "king's pleasure" instead of during "good behavior," as previously. The people of New York, unwilling to have judges not responsible to them, refused a salary for the chief justice. The king, thereupon, paid his salary from the quitrents, and ordered that thereafter all judges throughout the colonies should

hold office during his pleasure. Thus the judiciary would be made dependent upon the king.



PATRICK HENRY.

PATRICK HENRY was born at Studley, Hanover County, Virginia, May 29, 1736; died at Red Hill, Charlotte County, Virginia, June 6, 1799. He was admitted to the bar in 1760, and soon acquired a large practice. He was a member of the Continental Congress of 1774; was governor of Virginia from 1776 to 1779 and again from 1784 to 1786. There was no greater orator of Revolutionary times.

Patrick
Henry in
1763.

objected to the action of the assembly. They appealed to the king, who negatived the law. A clergyman then brought suit, in 1763, to recover as due him on salary the difference between the rate of twopence a pound and the market value of tobacco. At the trial the people were represented by Patrick Henry, a country lawyer. In a speech of fiery eloquence he declared that a king

206. The "Parson's Cause."—All debts in Virginia were paid in tobacco by the pound. On account of failures in the crop, the price of the staple had greatly increased, so the assembly, in order to make a fair adjustment, allowed the people the alternative of paying all public dues in money at the rate of twopence for the pound of tobacco. In those days, church assessments were public dues, and the clergy

who annuls so wise a law "degenerates into a tyrant and forfeits all right to obedience." The jury, obeying the law while at the same time showing their sympathy with the people, returned a verdict of a penny damages for the clergyman. This case became famous as the "Parson's Cause," and stirred the heart of every patriot.

207. Taxation.—The treaty of 1763, closing the French and Indian War, gave Great Britain all of Canada and the Floridas, and the undisputed possession of the country between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River. George III and his ministers felt compelled to govern and defend the great American colonies without further burdening the taxpayers at home, for the wars had left Great Britain heavily in debt. The practice of letting the colonial assembly decide what taxes should be levied for the support of the colonial government had never worked satisfactorily to Great Britain; for it seldom happened that the assembly was willing to levy a tax as large as the home government or its officials in America desired. For years many public men in Great Britain had favored the plan of raising a revenue in America for colonial purposes by taxes levied by parliament.

Great
Britain's
debt.

Now that the treasury was almost exhausted, it was decided to levy this tax. It was asserted that, as the mother country had become burdened with debt in waging wars for the colonists, no objection should be made to a tax levied upon them solely for the support of themselves. But the Americans objected vigorously. They contended that Great Britain had engaged in the wars for the advancement of her own commerce; that the Americans had already contributed more than their share of the expense; and that, besides, they did not need the protection of Great Britain. They were ready to meet all rightful expenses

Great
Britain's
treasury.

Americans,
unwilling to
be taxed by
Great
Britain.

through their own assemblies, but were unwilling that parliament, in which they had no representation, should tax them, for they would thus be subjected to taxes imposed without their consent.

A new sugar
act, 1764.

208. The Sugar Acts.—The British government persisted in its course. Provision was made for a standing army in America, and then, as a partial means for supporting this army, a new sugar act was passed in 1764. The old sugar act, first passed many years before, was one of the laws of navigation and trade. It had been enacted to give the sugar planters of the British West Indies control of the sugar trade with the colonies, by placing a heavy tax upon sugar, molasses, and rum imported into the colonies from other ports than those in the British West Indies. But the law had long been disregarded, and New England had carried on an extensive trade with the French, Spanish, and Dutch West Indies, exchanging fish, cattle, and lumber for the products taxed. The new sugar act was for the purpose of revenue, and was to be enforced. Its enforcement meant the destruction of a great trade, and consternation spread through the commercial colonies. The taxing for revenue, which the colonists held to be unconstitutional, added to the resentment fast growing against the mother country.

Taxing for
revenue held
to be uncon-
stitutional.

A tax on
legal
documents,
newspapers,
etc.

209. The Stamp Act.—But it was the Stamp Act, passed in the following year, 1765, that fired the whole land. This act provided that all legal papers, such as wills, deeds, mortgages, marriage licenses, etc., should be without value unless they were written on stamped paper. Newspapers also must bear the stamp, and a tax was placed on advertisements. The revenue to be raised from the sale of the paper, like the revenue from the sugar act, was to be used for supporting the British army in America.

210. Reception of the Stamp Act by the People. — The act was passed over the protest of America, and by it the public mind was stirred as it had never been before. "Taxation without representation is tyranny" became the watchword of America. Although the government had selected a tax that would be least burdensome upon the people, and although the revenue would be spent in America and solely for the support of the army, objection was made to the tax from principle. If Americans might be taxed without their consent for one purpose, they might be so taxed for purposes without end. The act was earnestly discussed by persons in every walk of life. It was openly denounced, and the determination that it should not be enforced was publicly proclaimed. Societies, called "Sons of Liberty," were formed for the purpose of resistance, and many riots occurred. Stamp distributors were burned in effigy and their property was pillaged, while many of the stamps were destroyed.

America protests.



A STAMP OF 1765.

"Sons of Liberty."

Merchants entered into a compact not to buy goods from England until the tax was removed. This was known as the "non-importation agreement," and was begun in New York. Homespun clothes were commonly worn, and the use of "home-made" articles of all kinds became the fashion.

The "non-importation agreement."

211. Virginia, Massachusetts, and the Carolinas. — Virginia was the first colony to act. Its assembly declared, in resolutions introduced by Patrick Henry,¹ that Virgini-

The Virginia resolutions, 1765.

¹ In his speech on the resolutions Henry said: "Tarquin and Cæsar had each his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell, and George III" — interrupted here by the presiding officer and some of the members crying, "Treason!"

ans had the same rights as Englishmen—that it was their right to be taxed only with their consent. The resolutions found hearty response throughout the country. “Virginia rang the alarm bell for the continent.”

Massachu-
setts and
South
Carolina.

The Massachusetts assembly invited the other colonies to join in an American Congress. The movement made slow progress until South Carolina accepted the invitation.



PATRICK HENRY IN THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY.

As Christopher Gadsden, an eminent patriot of that colony, said, “Had it not been for South Carolina, no Congress would then have happened.”

North
Carolina.

In North Carolina the governor asked what the assembly would do about the act. The speaker, John Ashe, replied, “We will resist its execution to the death,” and the governor broke up the assembly.

Address to
parliament.

212. The Stamp Act Congress.—The Congress met in New York on October 7, 1765. Most of the colonies were represented. Strong memorials were addressed to parliament claiming for the colonists, among other rights, the

treason!!” he paused and added—“may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.”

right of trial by jury in all cases, and the right to have taxes imposed only through colonial assemblies.

213. Repeal of the Stamp Act. — The morning of November 1, 1765, the day for the act to go into effect, was everywhere ushered in as a day of mourning. Bells were tolled, minute guns were fired, and flags were suspended at half mast. But the day was soon changed into one of rejoicing, for the law could not be enforced. Not a stamp distributor could be found, as all had been compelled to resign. Business requiring the stamp was discontinued or else was transacted without the use of the hated badge. Parliament, realizing the temper of the American people, repealed the law in the spring of 1766, but at the same time declared its right to tax America. Those who favored the repeal were led by William Pitt, the great friend of the colonies, and by Edmund Burke.

The Stamp
Act fails.

Stamp Act
repealed.
1766.

The repeal brought great joy to America, and was celebrated by bonfires, processions, and speechmaking. The declaration by parliament of its right to tax America was overlooked, and the affections of the colonists seemed, for a time, to turn again to the mother country.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

198. BRITISH COLONIAL POLICY.

199. LAWS OF NAVIGATION AND TRADE. — Purpose ; effect ; failure.

200. MANUFACTURES FORBIDDEN.

201. THE LAWS EVADED.

202. THE COLONIAL GOVERNORS. — Relations with Colonies.

203. THE CONFLICT APPROACHING. — Principle of government ; old ties.

204. WRITS OF ASSISTANCE. — Character ; opposition ; result.

205. THE KING ARBITRARY. — Slavery ; the judiciary.

206. THE "PARSON'S CAUSE." — Tobacco as currency ; public dues.

207. TAXATION. — Treaty of 1763 ; reason for taxation ; method ; objections.

208. THE SUGAR ACTS. — Old and new ; purpose ; effect.

209-213. THE STAMP ACT. — Substance ; reception ; resistance by individuals and Colonial Assemblies ; the Stamp Act Congress ; repeal.

CHAPTER XIII

OPPRESSIVE LEGISLATION CONTINUES

214. The "Townshend Acts." — The joy over the repeal of the Stamp Act was short-lived, for Great Britain had no intention of giving up the policy of taxing America for revenue. In the next year, 1767, parliament passed the following acts introduced by Charles Townshend: (1) the assembly of New York was forbidden to pass laws for that colony until it should satisfactorily comply with the Mutiny Act.¹ (2) A board of commissioners of customs was established in America for collecting revenue. (3) A tax was levied upon glass, paper, lead, painters' colors, and tea imported into the colonies. The revenue from the tax was to be used for supporting the army and the civil officials also.

215. Effect on the People. — The tax on glass, etc., like the sugar tax of 1764, was a tax on trade for the purpose of revenue and not for the regulation of commerce. It was natural that Americans should object to a revenue raised by taxing them without their consent, especially as this money would be used to support a standing army forced upon them in time of peace, and a body of officeholders over whom they would have no control. They determined to defeat the purpose of the law by not using the articles which were taxed, and renewed the old agree-

¹ This act required the colonies, in certain cases, to furnish quarters and supplies for the army, and was a cause of constant irritation.

Three
oppressive
laws, 1767.

The
Americans
again object.

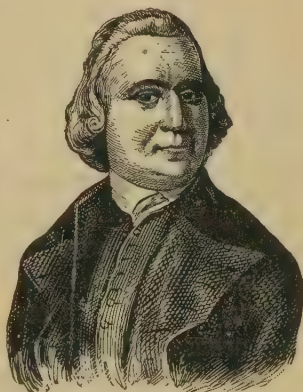
ment not to import anything from England. The acts were denounced by the pulpit, the press, and the people.

216. Action of Massachusetts.—The assembly of Massachusetts, guided by the noble patriot, Samuel Adams, in 1768 adopted for the king's consideration, resolutions protesting against the "Townshend Acts." At the same time they sent to the assembly of every other colony a circular letter asking for coöperation in securing the repeal of the acts. The resolutions and circular letter gave great offense to the king's ministers, who ordered that the assembly be dissolved unless its action was rescinded immediately. Instructions were also given that assemblies of other colonies indorsing the circular letter should be dissolved. The assembly of Massachusetts refused to rescind, whereupon the governor dissolved it. Every assembly showed approval of the letter; and the assemblies of Maryland, South Carolina, and Georgia were dissolved for indorsing it. When the Virginia assembly adopted resolutions protesting against the arbitrary course of Great Britain, it was treated in the same manner.

217. Parliament's Animosity.—In 1769 parliament requested the king to have all persons in America charged

Non-importation

Massachusetts protest 1768.



SAMUEL ADAMS.

After the portrait by Copley, in Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

SAMUEL ADAMS was born in Boston in 1722; died there in 1803. He was one of the earliest champions of the people's rights. Ever on the alert, he was untiring in his resistance to Great Britain's attacks upon the liberties of the colonies, and by his writings and speeches quickened the spirit of opposition. So great were his efforts in the movement for independence that he is often called the "Father of the Revolution." In 1794 he became governor of Massachusetts.

Resentment of the British government

Dissolution of assemblies

Colonists to
be tried in
England for
treason.

with opposition to the laws arrested and taken to England to be tried there for treason. Probably no one thing incensed the colonies more than this.

218. Riot in New York. The "**Boston Massacre.**" — British soldiers in New York cut down a liberty pole which the people had erected. A riot followed, lasting two days, January 18 and 19, 1770. One citizen was killed and others were wounded.

The first
blood,
January,
1770.

It was not long before blood was shed in Boston. The troops there had been giving considerable trouble, and the feeling against them was bitter. On the night of March 5, 1770, a quarrel arose between a party of soldiers and some of the inhabitants. The soldiers discharged their muskets, killing five persons and wounding six. The whole town was aroused, and the people in their indignation compelled the governor to remove the troops to the fort in the harbor. The "**Boston Massacre,**" as it was called, sent a thrill of horror over the country.

The Boston
Massacre,
March 5,
1770.

219. Battle of Alamance. — For many years the settlers in the uplands of North Carolina had been oppressed by exorbitant taxes, excessive attorneys' fees, and costly law-suits, all of which caused the loss of property rightfully acquired. A number of colonists, calling themselves "**regulators,**" formed an association for the purpose of maintaining their rights. They tried peaceful means, but Governor Tryon, who profited by the extortions, refused them relief, so they prepared to resist. The governor with more than a thousand militia marched to arrest the leaders, who had been declared outlaws. He met the "**regulators,**" many of whom were unarmed, near the Alamance River, and on May 16, 1771, a battle was fought. Of course the victory was with Tryon and his troops. Twenty "**regulators**" and nine soldiers were killed. Seven

The
"regulators."
Governor
Tryon.

Battle of
Alamance,
May 16, 1771.

of the prisoners taken by the governor were hanged as outlaws.

220. **Some Historic "Tea Parties."** — Meanwhile parliament removed the tax from all the commodities named in the Townshend Acts, except tea; but this partial repeal did not satisfy the colonists, and they would have none of the tea. The East India Company of London had a large supply which they could not dispose of because the Americans would not buy. To relieve the company, parliament removed the export tax charged in England. It was now hoped that the colonists would purchase the tea, because the company could sell it to them, in spite of the import tax in America, cheaper than they could get it by smuggling, and preparations were made for large shipments. But as the Americans were contending for a great principle, they objected to even this small tax.

The tax on tea.



MONUMENT ON ALAMANCE BATTLE GROUND.

Three ships of the company having arrived in Boston harbor, a party of men disguised as Indians, boarded them on the night of December 16, 1773, and threw the tea

The Boston
tea party,
Dec. 16, 1773.

Other tea
parties.

overboard. The affair is known as the "Boston Tea Party."

In Philadelphia and New York the people refused to allow the tea to be landed, and drove the ships away.

To the Public.

THE long expected TEA SHIP arrived last night at Sandy-Hook, but the pilot would not bring up the Captain till the sense of the city was known. The committee were immediately informed of her arrival, and that the Captain solicits for liberty to come up to provide necessaries for his return. The ship to remain at Sandy-Hook. The committee conceiving it to be the sense of the city that he should have such liberty, signified it to the Gentleman who is to supply him with provisions, and other necessaries. Advice of this was immediately dispatched to the Captain; and whenever he comes up, care will be taken that he does not enter at the custom-house, and that no time be lost in dispatching him.

New-York, April 19, 1774.

A NEW YORK HAND-BILL.

In Charleston some of the tea was thrown into the harbor, while some was stored and afterward sold for the benefit of the colony.

Later, when a vessel with a cargo of tea arrived at Annapolis, the citizens, in the daytime and without disguise, compelled the owner of the vessel and the importers of the tea to burn the ship with its entire cargo.

221. The "Five Intolerable Acts."

— Parliament sought to punish

Massachusetts for the destruction of the tea in Boston by passing, in 1774, the following laws, which on account of their severity and injustice were called by the colonists the "Five Intolerable Acts": (1) the port of Boston was closed — no ships, except those carrying food, could enter or leave the harbor, which meant ruin to the business of the town; (2) the charter of Massachusetts was changed so as to deprive the people of nearly all rights and liberties; (3) all magistrates, revenue officers, and soldiers, indicted in Massachusetts for murder and other capital crimes, were to be tried in Nova Scotia or Great Britain; (4) the quartering of troops in Boston was legalized; (5) the country between the Ohio and the Great Lakes¹ was attached to the province of Quebec.

¹ This territory, upon which several of the colonies, including Massachusetts, had claims, now comprises the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota.

The port of
Boston
closed, 1774.

The effect of the laws was to draw the people closer together, for every colony was making common cause with Massachusetts. Prompt measures for the relief of Boston were taken. The first help came from South Carolina, which sent a large quantity of rice. Soon rye, flour, peas, cattle, sheep, oil, fish, and money were poured into the town from all parts of the country. The day the port bill went into effect was observed in Philadelphia as a day of mourning, and in Virginia as a day of fasting and prayer.

Other colonies come to the help of Massachusetts.

222. Virginia leads to Union. First Continental Congress.

—A step had already been taken which led to the union of the colonies. At the instance of Virginia, intercolonial committees of correspondence had been established, through which the colonies consulted with one another concerning the danger to their common welfare. A general congress was suggested, and the proposition gained immediate favor. The Congress met at Philadelphia on September 5, 1774. It made formal complaint of the grievances suffered by the colonies since the accession of George III. Then the rights of the colonies were fully set forth. The Congress decided that it would meet again in May of the following year.

Committees of correspondence.

223. War Near at Hand.—The people of Massachusetts remained firm, and refused to allow the act violating their charter to have effect. (See Sec. 221.) Serious disturbances occurred in some of the colonies, and everywhere patriots prepared to defend their country. Committees of safety were appointed, the militia was strengthened and constantly drilled, and companies of "minute-men,"

The first Continental Congress, Sept. 5, 1774



A MINUTE-MAN.

From the statue at Concord.

Disturbances

Committees of safety.

Minute-men.

composed of men ready to shoulder their muskets at a moment's notice, were organized. Arms and ammunition were collected and secreted.

Great
Britain
prepares to
subdue
Massachu-
setts.

Meanwhile Great Britain declared Massachusetts in rebellion, and prepared to reduce the colony to obedience by force. General Gage was made military governor of the colony, and fortifications were erected around Boston. The troops in the town were increased to three thousand, and a strong fleet was stationed in the harbor.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 214-216. THE TOWNSHEND ACTS. — Threefold division ; effect on people ; Massachusetts takes action ; other colonies sympathize.
- 217. PARLIAMENT'S ANIMOSITY.
- 218. RIOTS IN NEW YORK AND BOSTON. — The Boston Massacre.
- 219. BATTLE OF ALAMANCE. — Resistance to unjust taxation.
- 220. SOME HISTORIC "TEA PARTIES." — Reason for tax on tea ; destruction of tea.
- 221. THE FIVE INTOLERABLE ACTS. — Substance of laws ; unity of colonies.
- 222. VIRGINIA LEADS TO UNION. — First Continental Congress, Philadelphia, 1774.
- 223. WAR NEAR AT HAND. — Preparations ; General Gage.

CHAPTER XIV

FIRST YEAR OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1775)

224. **Battle of Lexington.** — General Gage had received from England instructions to arrest certain leaders of the opposition to the royal government. It was especially desired that Samuel Adams and John Hancock, patriots of Massachusetts, who were among the foremost of these leaders, should be apprehended. They were at Lexington, ten miles from Boston. Gage planned to arrest them, and also to seize the military stores that the Americans had collected at Concord, six miles beyond Lexington.

1775

Gage sends
forces out
from Boston
April 18.

To accomplish this double purpose, he sent out from Boston eight hundred soldiers on the night of April 18. The movement, intended to be secret, was promptly detected.¹ The people along the route were aroused, and Adams and Hancock escaped. An advance detachment of British troops, under command of Major Pitcairn, reached Lexington about daybreak on April 19, and found a few minute-men gathered on the village green. Pitcairn rode up to the minute-men, crying, "Disperse, you villains!" and, as the men refused, commanded the soldiers to fire. Two volleys were discharged, and eight Americans were killed

Lexington,
April 19.

¹ Rumors of Gage's intention had reached the Americans in Boston some hours in advance. As soon as the soldiers set out, Paul Revere and William Dawes rode rapidly by different routes toward Lexington, arousing the people along the way. The brave messengers undertook a dangerous task, and both had narrow escapes, but they succeeded in spreading the alarm.

1775

and more than that number wounded. The citizens, retreating before the superior force, returned the fire, wounding one or two of their assailants. The main body of the British came up and the whole force marched on to Concord.

Concord,
April 19.

225. **Battle of Concord. Retreat of the British.**—The soldiers were able to destroy but few stores at Concord.



THE BATTLE AT CONCORD, APRIL 19, 1775.

Showing the detachment of the regulars who fired first on the provincials at the bridge—the provincials headed by Colonel Robinson and Major Buttrick.

From the engraving by Anthony Dolittle in the Hancock-Clarke House at Lexington.

for nearly all had been removed. Minute-men had been assembling in the town since early morning. When their numbers had grown to about half those of the British, they repulsed a detachment engaged in destroying a bridge. The rapidly increasing strength of the minute-men made the situation so dangerous for the British that soon all the troops were in retreat with the Americans following closely and harassing them at every step. Meanwhile the news had spread from village to farm, and from farm to village, and the whole region was in arms. According to a British officer's account the Americans "seemed to drop from the clouds," as they swarmed about the retreating

The British
compelled to
retreat.

column. In the highroad and open field, from behind houses, trees, and fences, ready marksmen poured their shots upon the enemy. The British killed and wounded fell fast, and the fire grew so galling that the retreat became a panic. The weather was exceedingly warm, and in the rush to get away the fugitives were almost exhausted. The entire force seemed doomed to destruction, when reënforcements with cannon arrived, and under this protection the survivors reached Boston. The British loss was nearly three hundred, and the American loss not quite a hundred.

1775

Reënforcements to save the British.

226. Effect on America. — The killing of citizens at Lexington, and the heroic stand of the farmers at Concord, kindled the flame of war from New Hampshire to Georgia. "With one impulse the colonies sprung to arms." Men of every vocation laid aside their work to go to the front. By the end of the month a large army had collected around Boston and shut the enemy up in the town.

An American army before Boston, May.

In April, Governor Dunmore of Virginia seized the gunpowder at Williamsburg. Patrick Henry raised a force to recover it, and the governor paid for the powder in money. Soon afterward Dunmore fled to a British war ship.

On May 10 a small body of New England volunteers under Colonel Ethan Allen, captured Fort Ticonderoga, in northern New York, and two days later a detachment of Allen's men took Crown Point, a fort near Ticonderoga. Valuable military supplies fell into their hands.

New England men take Ticonderoga, May 10, and Crown Point May 12.

227. Second Continental Congress. — On the day that Ticonderoga was taken, Congress met in Philadelphia. It declared that separation from Great Britain was not sought; that peace was desired, but that Great Britain had begun the war; and that allegiance to the crown would be restored by a return to conditions as they were before

1775

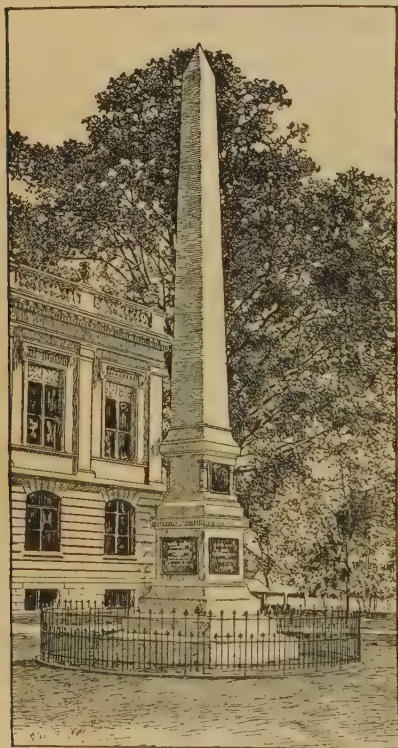
Washington
made
commander-
in-chief,
June 15.

While desiring peace, Congress took steps for the public defense. A call was made for twenty thousand men to form a continental army, for which the forces around Boston were accepted as a nucleus. George Washington

of Virginia was chosen commander-in-chief. Washington was present as a member of Congress, and he accepted in a modest speech. Three million dollars in paper money were issued. Later a small navy was created.

228. Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. — In May delegates from different parts of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, assembled in convention at Charlotte and declared the county independent of Great Britain.¹ The patriotic people of the county were so active in their opposition to royal authority, that the British came to regard the community as a "hornets' nest."

229. Battle of Bunker Hill. — Before Washington assumed command an important battle had been fought near Boston. By June 1 the patriot army sur-



MONUMENT TO THE SIGNERS OF THE
MECKLENBURG DECLARATION AT CHAR-
LOTTE, N.C.

¹ Some historians confuse the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence with a lesser event that occurred on May 31. The North Carolinians celebrate May 20 as the anniversary of the Declaration.

rounding the town numbered about sixteen thousand men, all raw recruits, and lacking in everything necessary for warfare, while the forces of the enemy consisted of nearly ten thousand well-equipped and well-trained soldiers. The Americans, on learning that the British commander intended fortifying Dorchester Heights and Bunker Hill, — points overlooking Boston, — determined to anticipate him.

1775

On the night of June 16 a detachment of Americans, commanded by Colonel Prescott, fortified Breed's Hill just across Charles River from Boston, and between the town and Bunker Hill. On the next morning, June 17, the fleet in the harbor opened fire. The cannon balls fell



SKETCH-MAP OF BOSTON AND BUNKER HILL, 1775.

thick, but the Americans continued their work on the intrenchments. Toward the afternoon about three thousand British troops crossed the river in boats. Forming in two lines they marched up the hill in perfect order to take a redoubt defended by half as many men, worn by their labor of the night before. The Americans permitted the British to come within close range. Then, suddenly, a terrific volley swept the British lines down the hill. They

Breed's Hill fortified, June 16.

British advance against the Americans on Breed's Hill, June 17.

1775

rallied and again advanced, but the Americans a second time drove them back. The third assault was successful, for the Americans had exhausted their ammunition.

A dearly
bought
victory.

The British loss was more than a thousand. The American loss was less than five hundred, but it included the brave General Warren, who was killed. The result, while not a victory for the patriots, showed that the American militia could withstand the assaults of the trained soldiers of Great Britain.

Condition of
the
continental
army.

230. **Washington assumes Command.** — On July 3 General Washington took formal command of the army, and immediately rearranged the lines so as to insure the holding of the British in Boston. The army was in a deplorable condition. The people of New England cheerfully fed the men; but it was impossible to supply the clothes, tents, arms, and ammunition needed. Indeed, the army suffered greatly for these things throughout the war. Among the supplies sent to the army was a quantity of powder forwarded from distant Georgia. This powder had been taken from a British ship near Savannah by a party of Georgians.

Montgomery
takes
Montreal,
November 12.

231. **Invasion of Canada.** — Congress had invited the Canadians to join in resistance to British oppression, but meeting with an indifferent response undertook to occupy Canada. With that country held by the Americans, the colonies would be protected against an invasion from the north. General Richard Montgomery, commanding an army of about a thousand men, which had entered Canada by the Lake Champlain route, captured Montreal on November 12. He then prepared to move on Quebec. By this time many of his soldiers had left him because their terms of enlistment had expired, and many others had died of small-pox. However, he pushed on with his greatly reduced

force. Washington sent to his aid Colonel Benedict Arnold and eleven hundred men, who made their way through the present state of Maine. They traversed a pathless wilderness, marched in heavy snows, and waded through rivers choking with ice. Being poorly clad, they suffered intensely from the cold. Once they were almost reduced to starvation: they had eaten their oxen and dogs and were living on roots and their moccasin shoes, when friendly Indians came to their assistance. In the midst of a severe snow storm they appeared opposite Quebec.

1775

Americans
before
Quebec,
December.

Montgomery's forces arrived on December 3, and the two little armies laid siege to the almost impregnable stronghold. Before day on December 31, while heavy snows were falling, they made an assault upon the town in two columns. The intention was to take the garrison by surprise; but a deserter had divulged the plan, and the Americans were repulsed with heavy loss. Montgomery was killed and Arnold was wounded.

The
Americans
before
Quebec,
December.

Unsuccessful
attack on
Quebec,
Dec. 31.

The army passed the remainder of the winter near Quebec, suffering greatly from cold and smallpox. Strong reinforcements for the British arrived, and the following summer the Americans retreated from Canada, thus closing a disastrous campaign.

Retreat from
Canada.

232. Battle of Great Bridge. Burning of Norfolk. —

Meanwhile Governor Dunmore was giving further trouble in Virginia. After his flight to the British vessel he made war upon the people of the colony. A battle was fought between the militia and his forces at Great Bridge on December 9, the militia gaining the victory. In revenge, Dunmore burned Norfolk on the first day of the new year. Shortly afterward he left Virginia, never to return.

Great Bridge
Dec. 9.

Norfolk
burned.

233. Royal Governments Disappear. — In every colony active preparations for resistance went on. The patriots

1775

Patriots in
control of
every
colonial
government.

assumed control of the colonial governments, organized regiments, and issued paper money. Powder and cannon were seized or destroyed in New York, Annapolis, Charleston, and Savannah. The royal governors in New York, North Carolina, and South Carolina, following Dunmore's example, sought refuge on British war vessels. In the opening of the new year, the Georgians seized their governor and put him under arrest. By the close of the year 1775, royal government had virtually disappeared from the thirteen colonies. As yet there was no concerted movement toward independence, notwithstanding the fact that the king had declared the Americans rebels, and had announced his intention to bring them to punishment.

Whigs and
Tories.

There were, however, many in every colony who remained friendly to Great Britain, and some who even took up arms against their countrymen. These the patriots called "Tories," from the name of the political party which in Great Britain favored the king and his policy. The patriots called themselves "Whigs," from the party opposed to the king.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 224-225. THE WAR BEGINS. — Battle of Lexington; Adams and Hancock, battle of Concord; retreat of the British.
- 226. EFFECT ON AMERICA. — Uprising in Virginia; Ticonderoga and Crown Point.
- 227. SECOND CONTINENTAL CONGRESS. — Statement of conditions; call for a continental army; George Washington.
- 228. MECKLENBURG DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.
- 229. BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL. — The opposing forces; results.
- 230. WASHINGTON ASSUMES COMMAND. — Army supplies.
- 231. INVASION OF CANADA. — Reason; plan of campaign; Montreal; Quebec; Arnold and Montgomery.
- 232. IN VIRGINIA. — Battle of Great Bridge; burning of Norfolk.
- 233. ROYAL GOVERNMENTS DISAPPEAR. — Whigs and Tories.

CHAPTER XV

SECOND YEAR OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1776)



COLONIAL FLAG, 1776.

234. First American Flag. — In January a flag was unfurled above the American army around Boston. This flag bore thirteen stripes, alternating red and white, to represent the thirteen colonies, and in the upper corner next the staff the crosses of Great Britain, to show

1776

The crosses
and stripes.

that the colonies did not claim independence.

235. Battle of Moore's Creek. — In North Carolina there were many Scotch Highlanders loyal to the crown. With other Tories they gathered fifteen hundred strong at Cross Creek (now Fayetteville), for the purpose of marching to Wilmington to enter the king's service. A battle was fought at Moore's Creek on February 27, between this force and a smaller body of patriots commanded by Colonels Caswell and Lillington. The Highlanders and their allies were completely routed. The victory firmly planted the cause of liberty in the colony.

Moore's
Creek,
Feb. 27.

236. Evacuation of Boston. — Washington's army still had the enemy confined in Boston, but no important engagement had occurred since the fight at Bunker Hill. Ammunition being too scarce for him to attempt an assault upon the town, Washington determined to force the

1776

Washington
fortifies
Dorchester
Heights.

British evac-
uate Boston,
March 17.

British out to sea. On the night of March 4, while diverting the enemy's attention with a heavy cannonading, he fortified Dorchester Heights. General Howe, who had succeeded Gage in command of the British, was amazed next morning to see on the heights a redoubt commanding the town. Realizing that his army and fleet were at Washington's mercy, he evacuated Boston on March 17. The fleet carried the troops and many of the Tories of Boston to Nova Scotia. The Americans took possession of the town, securing military supplies of great value.

237. Attack on Fort Moultrie. — The next movement of the British was an attempt to reduce the Southern colonies.



SERGEANT JASPER AT FORT MOULTRIE.

Land forces under Generals Clinton and Cornwallis, and a strong fleet under Admiral Peter Parker, appeared off Charleston, South Carolina. On Sullivan's Island, in the harbor of Charleston, there was a fort built of palmetto logs. The fort mounted thirty guns, for which there was a very small supply of powder; it had a garrison

of about four hundred men under Colonel William Moultrie. On June 28 the fleet, carrying more than three hundred guns, advanced upon the fort, and hurled against it an incessant shower of balls. The heavy cannonading of the enemy accomplished nothing, as the balls went over the fort or sank into the soft palmetto, while the well-directed fire of the Americans raked the deck of every ship.¹

Attack on
Fort Moul-
trie, June 28.

¹ The flagstaff on Fort Moultrie was shattered by one of the enemy's balls, and the flag fell on the beach in front of the fort. Sergeant William Jasper

The contest, one of the severest of the war, lasted from morning until after nightfall, when the fleet retired. The fort was afterward named Moultrie in honor of its brave defender. The victories at Moore's-Creek and Charleston preserved the Southern colonies from further invasion for two years.

238. **The Cherokee Uprising.** — However, the Indians in the South gave trouble. British agents incited the Cherokees to attack the frontier settlements. From southwestern Virginia to the mountainous districts of South Carolina and Georgia, the Indians went on the war-path. Their ravages in what is now Tennessee were soon checked; but in upper South Carolina, whence the militia had been withdrawn to aid in the defense of Fort Moultrie, they laid waste a wide section and murdered many of the inhabitants. Patriot forces, gathering in South Carolina and Georgia, destroyed all the Cherokee towns east of the mountains, and armies from Virginia and the Carolinas destroyed those west of the mountains.

The
Cherokees
defeated.

239. **Steps toward Independence.** — In the meantime the desire for independence had grown. In the first half of the year some of the colonies had formed provisional governments. South Carolina had gone further; in March, it had organized a complete independent government by adopting a constitution and installing the executive, legislative, and judicial officers. John Rutledge was the chief executive, with the title of President. In June, Virginia likewise adopted a constitution and organized an independent government with Patrick Henry as governor.

The colonies
take steps
toward inde-
pendence.

leaped over the rampart and, braving the thickest of the fire, recovered the flag. Attaching it to the sponge staff of a cannon he replanted it on the fort. For his heroic deed he was offered a lieutenant's commission, which he modestly declined.

1776

Lee offers
resolution
that the colo-
nies are inde-
pendent.

240. **Declaration of Independence.** — It was desirable that the colonies should take united action. North Carolina authorized its delegates in Congress to vote for independence, and Virginia instructed its delegates to propose independence. Within a very short time after the action of North Carolina and Virginia a majority of the colonies had signified their desire for separation from Great Britain.

*And for the support of this declaration]
we mutually pledge to each other our
lives our fortunes, & our sacred honour.*

John Hancock
Sam^l Adams *John Adams* *John Jay*

FACSIMILE OF THE CONCLUSION OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

In the writing of Jefferson, with the first three signatures.

The resolu-
tion passed,
July 2.

Declaration,
July 4.

On July 2, Congress, on motion of Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, resolved that the "united colonies are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent states." To give form to the resolution, Congress, on July 4, adopted *The Declaration of Independence*. This paper, in many respects the most important political instrument ever given to the world, was written by Thomas Jefferson of Virginia.

By its assumption of independence each colony became a *state*. Within the next twelve months such states as had not already done so established independent governments.

241. Battle of Long Island. — Suspecting that General Howe would next attack New York, Washington marched his army from Boston to that place. Shortly afterward Howe landed his army on Staten Island in New York harbor. He was joined by a large fleet under his brother, Admiral Howe, and by the land and naval forces which had been repulsed from Charleston. The combined numbers of the enemy almost doubled those of Washington. Twenty thousand British troops crossed over to Long Island to take the fortifications at Brooklyn, where a part of the American army, under command of General Israel Putnam, had been posted. Four thousand Americans, sent by Putnam to oppose the advance of this large force were surrounded, on August 27, and badly beaten, the losses reaching nearly a thousand. But Howe delayed his attack on the fortifications so long that Washington, now on the field in person, had time to withdraw the American troops to New York. The retreat across East River was made on the third night after the battle. Washington conducted it so quietly and skillfully that the British were in entire ignorance of it; yet the Americans left nothing except a few useless cannon.¹

1776

Washington
marches to
New York,
April.

British attack
Putnam.

Battle of
Long Island,
August 27.

242. The Army Diminishing. — The defeat on Long Island had greatly discouraged the Americans. The militia left the army in large numbers, and Washington saw his forces diminishing without his being able to

¹ After the retreat from Long Island, Washington desired further information regarding the movements of the British, which Nathan Hale volunteered to obtain. Assuming a disguise, he entered the enemy's lines, and having accomplished his mission, was about to return when he was betrayed by a Tory relative. Condemned to be hanged as a spy, he went to his death with the noble words, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." His youth, and the fact that he was about to marry, made his case a peculiarly sad one. His fate excited great sympathy.

1776

Short
enlistments.

prevent it. The system of short enlistments made it impossible to keep a full and well-disciplined army. From the outset Washington had urged the enlisting of men to serve until the end of the war; but Congress, wishing to avoid even the appearance of a standing army, preferred enlistments for only a few months or a year. Consequently the composition of the army was constantly changing: troops coming and going.

Washington
evacuates
New York,
Sept. 15.

243. The British take New York. — When the enemy's fleet moved up to New York and General Howe landed a force above the city, Washington, to save his army from being surrounded, retired to Harlem Heights on the upper end of Manhattan Island. The rear guard of the Americans evacuated New York on September 15. The British took immediate possession of the city and held it until the end of the war.

The
mercenaries.

244. The Hessians. — Among the British forces engaged in the battle of Long Island were soldiers whom the king had hired from princes in Germany. In the course of the war he employed about seventeen thousand of these foreigners. Many of them were Hessians, and this name was given to all of them by the Americans, who detested them because they were hirelings.

Battle at
White Plains,
Oct. 28.

245. Operations around New York. — Washington's army occupied the position at Harlem Heights for about a month. When Howe undertook to gain his rear, Washington retired from Manhattan Island and made a stand at White Plains, where a battle was fought on October 28. The right wing of the Americans was driven back to the intrenchments of the main body, and when Howe was reënforced the Americans withdrew to North Castle. Howe did not follow, but turned back to Dobbs Ferry on the Hudson. Washington, believing that the British

general designed an attack upon Philadelphia, crossed into New Jersey; however, he left a division under General Charles Lee on the east side of the Hudson to watch the enemy's movements.

1776

Washington
in New
Jersey.

246. Retreat through New Jersey. — Fort Lee, on the New Jersey side of the Hudson, was abandoned at the approach of the British under Cornwallis. With his army reduced to less than three thousand, Washington retreated across New Jersey, hotly pursued by Cornwallis, who was later joined by Howe. Washington desired to give battle, and repeatedly sent orders to Lee to bring up his division, but Lee willfully disobeyed. In consequence Washington had to retire across the Delaware into Pennsylvania, early in December. His men suffered severely on the retreat, their bare feet leaving blood-stains on the snow.

Washington
retreats
south of the
Delaware.

247. The Middle States Demoralized. — The hour was dark for America. With the defeat in Canada, New York in the hands of the enemy, New Jersey overrun, and Philadelphia threatened, the cause seemed hopeless. To add to the gloom a fleet on Lake Champlain had been destroyed and Crown Point retaken (October 11-14), and Newport, Rhode Island, captured (December 8). The people of New Jersey and Pennsylvania were demoralized and would give little assistance to Washington; indeed, many hastened to take the oath of allegiance to the king. The American army was fast dwindling away, and Congress, fearing that Philadelphia would be taken, adjourned to Baltimore. But the enemy did not cross into Pennsylvania. The British generals, confident that they could capture Philadelphia at any time, put their troops into winter quarters, stationing detachments at various points in New Jersey.

A time of
gloom.

British go
into winter
quarters.

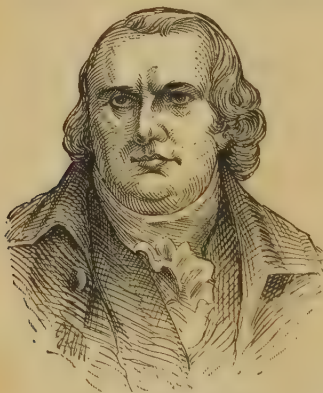
1776

General
Charles Lee
captured,
Dec. 13.

Washington
crosses the
Delaware
into New
Jersey,
Dec. 25.

Successful
action at
Trenton,
Dec. 26.

248. Battle of Trenton. — General Lee, as the result of gross carelessness on his own part,¹ was captured, but his division crossed the Delaware and joined Washington. Other reënforcements raised the army to about five thousand, and Washington determined to fall upon a large body of Hessians at Trenton, New Jersey. On Christmas night, which he believed most suitable for a surprise because the Hessians would probably be carousing, he crossed the Delaware with two thousand men. Through falling snow and sleet the men guided the boats amid masses of floating ice which threatened destruction at every moment. Though it was broad day before the Americans reached Trenton, they surprised and completely routed the Hessians. A large quantity of arms fell to the victors.



ROBERT MORRIS.

Washington immediately recrossed the river. He had lost but four men, two of whom were frozen to death. The Hessians had lost many in killed and almost a thousand as prisoners. The victory gave new hope to the country and revived the spirit of the army.

Money was greatly needed to pay the sums already due to the troops and to induce them to remain after the expiration of their enlistments. The paper, or "continental money," issued by Congress, had little value. Washington

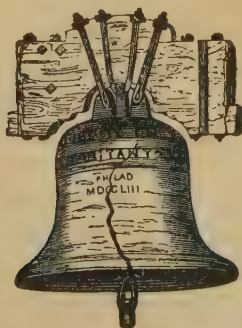
¹ General Charles Lee was an Englishman by birth, and had served in the British Army. It is charged that while held a prisoner by Howe, he attempted to betray the American cause.

appealed to Robert Morris, the patriot and financier of Philadelphia, who raised on his personal credit fifty thousand dollars in gold and silver. With this sum Washington was able to hold his forces together.

1776

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

234. FIRST AMERICAN FLAG.
235. BATTLE OF MOORE'S CREEK.
236. EVACUATION OF BOSTON.
237. ATTACK ON FORT MOULTRIE. — Attempts to subdue the South ; result.
238. THE CHEROKEE UPRISING.
239. STEPS TOWARD INDEPENDENCE. — Provisional and independent governments.
240. DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. — The colonies become states.
241. BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND. — The battle ; result ; the retreat.
242. THE ARMY DIMINISHING. — Short enlistments ; poor results.
243. THE BRITISH TAKE NEW YORK.
244. THE HESSIANS.
245. OPERATIONS AROUND NEW YORK. — Manhattan Island ; White Plains.
246. RETREAT THROUGH NEW JERSEY.
247. A PERIOD OF GLOOM. — Defeats in Canada, New England and the Middle States ; the army diminishing ; Congress removes to Baltimore ; Washington.
248. THE BATTLE OF TRENTON. ROBERT MORRIS.



THE LIBERTY BELL.

In Independence Hall, Philadelphia.

CHAPTER XVI

THIRD YEAR OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1777)

1777

Princeton,
Jan. 3.

249. **Battle of Princeton.** — Washington, continuing his policy of attacking the British garrisons in New Jersey, again crossed the Delaware, and took position behind a small creek south of Trenton, with his back to the river. Cornwallis, with a superior force, took position near the American camp on the night of January 2. [Washington's position between the river and the enemy was critical, but Cornwallis made no attack that night, saying that he would "catch the fox in the morning."] The American general, who was more than a match for his antagonist, resolved to elude him and overwhelm the garrison at Princeton. He also hoped to seize the British stores at New Brunswick. Leaving his campfires burning to deceive the enemy, he stealthily marched his army around Cornwallis and reached the outskirts of Princeton about sunrise of the next day, January 3. Here he met a part of the garrison marching out to join Cornwallis, and a short but decisive battle ensued. The British suffered a severe defeat, losing more than four hundred men. The garrison fled to New Brunswick.

Cornwallis did not discover that Washington had outgeneraled him until daylight, when he started in pursuit, and entered Princeton just as the Americans left. Fearing for his stores at New Brunswick, he pushed on to

that place; but the Americans were so wearied by long marching and hard fighting that Washington turned aside to Morristown, where he put his men into winter quarters.

1777
Washington goes into winter quarters at Morristown.

250. New Jersey Recovered. — The effect of the successes at Trenton and Princeton was immediate. The people of New Jersey were encouraged to rise against the invaders. Militia seized nearly all of the British posts, and many recruits joined Washington's army; yet even with these additions it was not half as strong as the enemy. Though Washington was urged to risk an engagement, and Howe endeavored to draw him into one, he prudently avoided battle. Detachments from his army so harassed the enemy, however, that by the end of June the British had entirely evacuated New Jersey and retired to New York.

British abandon New Jersey, June.

251. The "Stars and Stripes." — As the states had declared their independence of Great Britain, the crosses on the American flag were displaced in June by thirteen stars in a blue field. This flag, with the addition of a star for each state subsequently admitted into the Union, is the "Stars and Stripes" of to-day.

The flag decided upon.

252. British Plan of Campaign. — For the approaching season the British government planned a double campaign. (1) In order to reduce New York state and separate New England from the rest of the country, a large army was to descend from Canada by Lake Champlain and join at Albany a force ascending the Hudson from New York. (2) Howe, besides sending a force from New York up the Hudson, was to capture Philadelphia.

British plan of campaign.

The British government had succeeded in making allies of the Indians, and numbers of them had joined the army that was to come from Canada. As Howe's request for large reënforcements had been refused, he notified his

The Indians friends to the British.

1777

government that he was not able to take Philadelphia, and at the same time help the army from Canada.

General John
Burgoyne
advances
from Canada.

253. Burgoyne's March. — General Burgoyne commanded the army from Canada. This army, composed of British, Hessians, Canadians, Tories, and Indians, nearly ten thousand men in all, began its movement in June. The main body of Americans opposing its advance was only about four thousand strong. It was commanded by General Philip Schuyler and was stationed at Fort Edward on the Hudson.

General
Philip
Schuyler
opposes
Burgoyne.

(Burgoyne took a route which lay through a wilderness and over creeks and swamps. Schuyler felled trees across the path and destroyed the bridges. The labor of removing the obstructions and rebuilding the bridges in the midsummer heat, greatly dispirited Burgoyne's men, and so delayed him that he did not reach Fort Edward until the latter part of July.)

Burgoyne's
insecurity.

Meanwhile Schuyler had retreated slowly to a point near Albany. But the enforced delays had made Burgoyne's position insecure. He had been compelled to reduce his army in order to garrison Ticonderoga and the other forts that he had seized. All of his supplies had to be brought from England by way of Quebec, and provisions became scarce. Volunteers, together with reënforcements sent by Washington, were swelling the army in front of him, and militia hung upon his flanks; he could not make a vigorous advance nor could he retreat.

John Stark at
Bennington,
Aug. 16.

254. Bennington. Stanwix. — In his dilemma Burgoyne sent a detachment toward Vermont to recruit Tories and seize American supplies that he had heard had been stored at Bennington; but on August 16 this force was completely routed near Bennington by a small body of militia under General John Stark. A second detachment, sent to reënforce the first, also met with defeat.

A force sent from Canada into western New York with instructions to ravage the Mohawk valley and then unite with Burgoyne, laid siege, in August, to Fort Stanwix (or Schuyler), near the site of the present city of Rome. The garrison made a gallant defense. Benedict Arnold, whom Schuyler sent with a few hundred men to the assistance of the garrison, caused such exaggerated reports of the size of his force to precede him, that the besiegers fled in alarm.

1777

Benedict
Arnold re-
lieves Fort
Stanwix,
August 22.

255. The Two Battles of Saratoga, or Stillwater. — Just at this time Schuyler was superseded by General Horatio Gates, under whose command the American army advanced slowly to Bemis's Heights, near Stillwater, not far from Saratoga. With an army now smaller than his opponent's, Burgoyne advanced against the Americans in their fortified position on September 19. Gates desired to act on the defensive, but at the earnest request of his officers consented to engage the enemy. Had it not been for the gallantry of Gates's subordinate officers, especially Benedict Arnold and Daniel Morgan, the day would probably have been lost. As it was, the victory was for neither side, yet Burgoyne, badly crippled, withdrew two miles. His position was now critical in the extreme. His effective force continued to diminish, while the Americans increased every day. Again Gates became inactive. Burgoyne, in desperation, attacked the American army on October 7. The battle resulted in his defeat. The British lost in the two battles more than a thousand men. The American loss was much smaller.

Gates
supersedes
Schuyler,
August 19.

Advance to
Saratoga.

First battle,
Sept. 19.

Second
battle,
Oct. 7.

256. Burgoyne's Surrender. — The enemy retreated to Saratoga Heights, followed by the Americans. Here Burgoyne, almost surrounded and hopeless of aid from New York, surrendered on October 17. About six thou-

1777

Effect of the
victory.

sand prisoners and a large amount of munitions of war fell into the Americans' hands. Burgoyne's capture had most important results. It saved New England and New York state, and was the immediate cause of a treaty with France. In the joy that spread over America, Gates was for a time lauded as a hero.

Lafayette.

Other foreign
volunteers.

257. Foreign Volunteers. — Marquis de Lafayette, a rich young nobleman of France who sympathized strongly with America's struggle for liberty, arrived at Philadelphia in the summer, and offered to serve in the American army without pay. Congress made him a major general, and he proved worthy of the rank. Other officers of distinction from continental Europe served in the American army, prominent among whom were Baron de Kalb from France, Kosciuszko and Count Pulaski from Poland, and Baron Steuben from Prussia. De Kalb and Pulaski gave their lives for the cause.

258. Battle of Brandywine. Capture of Philadelphia. — While Burgoyne was being closely pressed, Howe abandoned him. Leaving General Clinton with a force sufficient to hold New York, Howe put to sea with his army, and in August ascended Chesapeake Bay to attack Philadelphia from the south. His army numbered eighteen thousand men.

Brandywine
Creek,
Sept. 11.

Washington, with a force hardly half as great, and very poorly equipped, attempted to arrest Howe's progress. A battle was fought on September 11 near Brandywine Creek, in Pennsylvania. Lafayette was wounded in this battle, his first in America. The Americans were defeated and withdrew toward Philadelphia. They lost about a thousand men, while the enemy lost about half as many.

Howe passed around the American army and entered Philadelphia on September 26. Congress again fled, this

time going to York, Pennsylvania. Washington encamped twenty miles from Philadelphia. Though unable with his little army to prevent the loss of Philadelphia, he had so detained the British that it was now too late for Howe to send assistance to Burgoyne.

1777
Congress at
York.

259. **Battle of Germantown.** — Washington resolved to surprise Howe's main division, encamped at Germantown, just north of Philadelphia. The American army, marching fourteen miles by night, reached Germantown on the morning of October 4, and immediately made a vigorous attack, which was at first successful. But detachments of the enemy took refuge in a stone mansion, from which they could not be dislodged, and poured heavy volleys upon the Americans, who, becoming confused in a fog, fired upon one another. Demoralization spread in the patriot ranks, and the fight, which the Americans had almost won, ended in a disorderly retreat.

Germantown
Oct. 4.

(Germantown was the last battle of the campaign.) Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge on December 19.

Valley Forge
Dec. 19.

260. **The "Conway Cabal."** — Members of Congress and of the Pennsylvania legislature disapproved of Washington's course in going into winter quarters without one more effort to dislodge the enemy from Philadelphia. A great clamor arose for an immediate assault; but Washington calmly held his ground, for he knew that his army was in no condition for such an undertaking.

(A conspiracy, known as the "Conway Cabal," because General Conway was its most active agent, was formed to have Washington removed and Gates made commander-in-chief.) Many officers of the army and a faction in Congress joined in the plot. Comparison was made between Gates's campaign against Burgoyne and Washing-

Plot to
remove
Washington

1777 ton's against Howe. Such comparison, of course, was unfair. Before Gates took command his opponent was practically defeated, and his capture was effected more by subordinate officers than by Gates himself. Washington, with his little force in wretched condition, had to contend against a well-equipped and well-provisioned army double the size of his own. Besides, he had prevented Howe from helping Burgoyne. The cabal endeavored, by forged and anonymous letters and by false representations, to weaken Washington's influence, but the people knew the greatness of the man, and refused to believe anything against him. The intrigue ended in ignominious failure. Washington bore every slander without a murmur, for a defense of himself would have betrayed to the enemy the weakness of the army.

Failure of
the plot.

The Confed-
erated States,
Nov. 15.

261. **Articles of Confederation.** — On November 15 Congress adopted "The Articles of Confederation," providing a form of government for the United States of America. The new government, however, did not go into operation until near the end of the war, as it was necessary for the articles to be ratified by every state.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 249-250. **BATTLE OF PRINCETON.** — Retreat from Trenton; Cornwallis outgeneraled; New Jersey recovered.
- 251. **THE "STARS AND STRIPES."**
- 252. **BRITISH PLAN OF CAMPAIGN.** — Twofold purpose; Indian allies.
- 253-256. **BURGOYNE'S CAMPAIGN.** — Burgoyne's army; General Schuyler; Burgoyne's march; Bennington and Stanwix; battles of Saratoga; the surrender, Oct. 17, 1777; results.
- 257. **FOREIGN VOLUNTEERS.** — Lafayette, De Kalb, Kosciuszko, Pulaski, Steuben.
- 258. **BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE.** — Philadelphia captured.
- 259. **BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN.** — End of Campaign; Valley Forge.
- 260. **THE "CONWAY CABAL."** — Heroism of Washington.
- 261. **ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.**

CHAPTER XVII

FOURTH AND FIFTH YEARS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1778-1779)

262. **A Winter of Gloom.**—The darkest hour of the Revolution had come. The country was almost in despair. The enactments of Congress had not the authority of law, but depended for enforcement upon the favor of the people. Congress had lost influence. Most of the able men who had been in Congress were now serving their state governments, and the sessions held at York were poorly attended and were disturbed by jealousies and quarrels. Congress had neither revenue nor credit, and being without power to tax, had resorted to large issues of "continental money," which had become almost worthless. People preferred to sell to the British for good money, and withheld supplies from the American army; the half-starved American soldiers deserted in such numbers that the army at Valley Forge was reduced to about five thousand.

1778

The cause in peril.

The army unfit for the field.

263. **Valley Forge.**—History presents no sadder picture than the sufferings of the little band at Valley Forge, and no nobler illustration of devotion to a patriotic cause. The men, shivering from the bitter cold, erected huts in the forest. No one was fully clad. Many were without shoes, their bare feet bleeding on the snow; others were in rags. A suit of clothing often served two soldiers—one wearing it while the other remained in his hut. There was much sickness, and many died for want of straw or other bedding.

The terrible winter of 1777-1778.

1778

to protect them from the cold, damp ground. Suffering patriots often sat up by the fire all night to keep warm. Meat or bread would be lacking for days, and frequently food and fuel were brought a great distance on the backs of men trudging through snow and ice. But with it all a small band of heroes remained together.



VALLEY FORGE.

Washington and Lafayette visiting the suffering army. After the painting by A. Gilbert.

French treaty
signed,
Feb. 6.

264. Alliance with France.—A treaty of alliance between France and America was signed on February 6. From the beginning of hostilities Congress had endeavored to secure the aid of the governments of continental Europe, and especially of France, the hereditary foe of Great Britain. The king of France had already allowed supplies to be secretly sent to the Americans; now, encouraged by the surrender of Burgoyne, he made an open alliance with the United States. The treaty was secured mainly through the efforts of Benjamin Franklin. War between Great Britain and France immediately followed. News of the alliance reached America late in the spring, bringing great joy to the patriots. Meanwhile Great

Britain, astounded at Burgoyne's capture and expecting the French alliance, had attempted to make peace with America by offering to grant practically everything for which the colonies had gone to war. But the Americans were now determined to gain independence.

265. Philadelphia Evacuated. Battle of Monmouth.

—General Howe had resigned and General Clinton, now in command of the British forces, was directed by his government to evacuate Philadelphia, because there was fear that the Delaware would be blockaded by a French fleet. On June 18 Clinton began to withdraw through New Jersey to New York.

(The condition of Washington's army had greatly improved with the coming of warm weather, so he followed and attacked Clinton near Monmouth, New Jersey, on June 28, and drove him from the field.)

Clinton continued his retreat to New York, and Washington encamped at White Plains. The armies had returned to the positions they had occupied two years previously;

1778
Great Britain
offers peace.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

After the portrait by Duplessis, 1783.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN was born in Boston, January 17, 1706; died April 17, 1790. His parents were poor, and he was apprenticed at the age of twelve to the printer's trade. When seventeen, he removed to Philadelphia, arriving there almost penniless. He continued in the printing business, and through his writings while quite young gained considerable notice. His most famous publication was "Poor Richard's Almanac." Franklin held many colonial positions of trust. He was untiring in his work for America, and enjoyed the distinction of signing the Declaration of Independence, the treaty of alliance with France, the treaty of peace with Great Britain, and the Constitution of the United States. He was also president (or governor) of Pennsylvania. Despite his busy life, Franklin found time to devote to science and to the advancement of the human race. He made valuable discoveries in electricity.

Clinton
evacuates
Philadelphia,
June 18.

Monmouth,
June 28.

1778

but the Americans, instead of retiring before overwhelming numbers, were now holding the enemy in New York.

266. **Wyoming and Cherry Valleys.** — The beautiful and fertile Wyoming valley, in Pennsylvania, was invaded in July by Tories and Indians. In the battle that followed the Indians practiced their horrible butcheries, and after nightfall tortured and murdered their prisoners. The savages then laid waste the valley. Tories and Indians also ravaged Cherry valley in western New York, murdering the inhabitants and destroying settlements.

Indian
cruelties.

267. **George Rogers Clark in the Illinois Country.** — British agents incited Indians to ravage the settlements



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

in the far Northwest. To put a stop to this cruel mode of warfare, George Rogers Clark, a young Virginian who had removed to Kentucky, proposed to the authorities of Virginia an expedition against the British posts in the Northwest. The project pleased Governor Patrick Henry, who commissioned Clark to execute it. With less than two hundred men Clark made his way

through nearly a thousand miles of wilderness, and early in July captured Kaskaskia. Soon afterward Cahokia and Vincennes were taken. Colonel Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, retook Vincennes in the following December; but two months later, Clark compelled Hamilton to surrender Vincennes a second time, and the British commander was made a prisoner. The remarkable

Kaskaskia
captured;
also Cahokia
and
Vincennes.

achievements of this mere handful of Americans had a most important result. By the Quebec Act (see Sec. 221) Great Britain had annexed the country north of the Ohio to the province of Quebec. When peace came Virginians were holding this territory by force of arms. But for Clark and his men, the northern boundary of the United States would perhaps have been the Ohio River instead of the Great Lakes.

1778

Country
north of the
Ohio saved
by Clark.

268. Fall of Savannah. — Having failed to conquer the Northern states, the British government next attempted the subjugation of the South, which had been free from invasion since the attack on Fort Moultrie. General Clinton sent Colonel Campbell with three thousand men to invade Georgia. On December 29, Campbell overcame a small American force and took possession of Savannah.

Invasion of
Georgia.

1779

269. Americans on the Defensive. — (Although the enemy held only Newport, New York, and Savannah, the prospects were gloomy for the Americans.) The influence of Congress was still waning. The currency was rapidly becoming worthless. By the end of the year a dollar was worth only about two cents in coin. Washington could not engage in active operations for want of funds, and his only hope was to confine the British to the seaboard.

Continental
currency
almost
worthless.

270. Georgia Overrun. — The enemy's attempt to subjugate the South went on. General Prevost came up from Florida and took command of the British in Georgia. Early in the year he sent Colonel Campbell to Augusta, and Georgia, the youngest and feeblest of the states, was completely at the mercy of the enemy. Bands of Tories plundered and destroyed the property of the Whigs. One of these bands, under command of Colonel Boyd, was

The British
control
Georgia.

The Tories

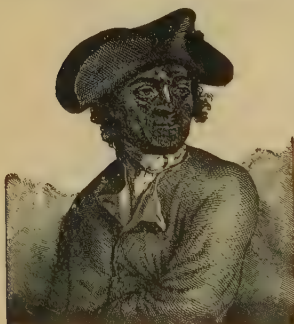
1779 defeated by Colonel Andrew Pickens, in February, at Kettle Creek. Encouraged by this success, General Benjamin Lincoln, who had been placed in command of the American forces in the South, sent General Ashe with fifteen hundred men against Campbell; but in March (Ashe was surprised and completely routed, near Brier Creek,) by a brother of General Prevost. After this battle, the royal government was temporarily reëstablished in Georgia.

Brier Creek,
March 3.

Mad
Anthony
Wayne.

271. **Stony Point. Paulus Hook.** — On the night of July 15 General Anthony Wayne, of the American army, performed one of the most brilliant exploits of the war. With a small body of men he captured Stony Point, an important post on the Hudson, surprising the garrison and making prisoners of the whole force. The cannon and

Light Horse
Harry Lee.



PAUL JONES.

After the etching by A. Varen.

A famous
naval battle,
Sept. 23.

stores were removed and the works leveled. This was followed by the equally brilliant exploit of Major Henry Lee, who, on August 19, with a few picked men, surprised the British at the fortified post of Paulus Hook (now Jersey City) and captured a large part of the garrison.

272. **John Paul Jones's Naval Victory.** — On September 23 John Paul Jones, commanding the American vessel *Bon Homme Richard*, attacked the much superior British ship *Serapis* off the coast of England. A terrible battle raged for hours. The vessels were so close that the muzzles of their cannon touched. The *Bon Homme Richard* began to sink; but Jones lashed the ships together, and the fight went on more furiously. The enemy's ship frequently took fire,

and at times both vessels were wrapped in flames. The decks presented scenes of fearful carnage. Explosives thrown into the British vessel caused great havoc, and its commander was forced to surrender. Jones and his men took possession of the *Serapis*, and the *Bon Homme Richard* sank.

1779

273. Assault on Savannah. — In September the French joined the Americans under Lincoln in laying siege to Savannah. An attempt was made, on October 9, to carry the enemy's works by storm. The allied troops made a gallant assault, and planted side* by side on the parapet the flags of France and South Carolina, but were driven back with the loss of nearly a thousand men. Count Pulaski and Sergeant Jasper were among the slain. The enemy's loss was about a hundred. Lincoln wished to make another assault; but the French commander, D'Estaing, refused. The French sailed home, and the Americans withdrew to Charleston.

Repulse of
French and
Americans
at Savannah,
Oct. 9.

Pulaski and
Jasper killed

274. The Close of the Year. — The British evacuated Newport, but established a post on the Penobscot River in the present state of Maine. From the Penobscot to Florida they now held only New York city and Georgia.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 262-263. A WINTER OF GLOOM. — Congress; sufferings at Valley Forge.
- 264. ALLIANCE WITH FRANCE. — Benjamin Franklin; Great Britain offers peace.
- 265. PHILADELPHIA EVACUATED. — Reason; battle of Monmouth.
- 266. WYOMING AND CHERRY VALLEYS. — Tories and Indians.
- 267. CLARK IN THE ILLINOIS COUNTRY. — Result of campaign.
- 268. FALL OF SAVANNAH.
- 269. AMERICANS ON THE DEFENSIVE, 1779. — Currency depreciating.
- 270. GEORGIA OVERRUN. — Tory bands.
- 271. STONY POINT, PAULUS HOOK.
- 272. THE ONLY GREAT NAVAL VICTORY.
- 273. ASSAULT ON SAVANNAH.
- 274. THE CLOSE OF 1779.

CHAPTER XVIII

SIXTH YEAR OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

(1780)

1780

Condition of
the army
under
Washington.

275. Inactivity in the North. — Washington's army, too weak for active operations, passed the year in the neighborhood of New York. In the winter the men suffered greatly. Snow was two feet deep, and New York harbor was frozen over. Food was scarce, and the month's pay of a soldier, in the depreciated currency, would hardly buy him a dinner. The forces directly under Washington's command were reduced to less than four thousand.

British plan
to conquer
the South.

276. Fall of Charleston. — Fortunately for Washington's army the British had determined to devote all their energy to conquering the South. Clinton sailed from New York to conduct the campaign in person. With a fleet and an army of thirteen thousand men he laid siege to Charleston. General Lincoln had made known to Congress the weak condition of the state and had appealed for assistance, but all that Congress was able to do was to send him a small reënforcement. With an army of only five thousand men, half of whom were militia, Lincoln undertook to defend Charleston. The enemy's troops on one side and ships on the other completely hemmed in the city, yet the Americans bravely held out for nearly two months. On May 12, after a destructive bombardment, Charleston was surrendered and the American army was captured. The city was pillaged by the British and Hessians.

Siege of
Charleston.

Charleston
surrendered.

277. South Carolina Overrun. — Clinton immediately sent into the interior of the state three detachments, which overran the country. The state seemed helpless; Congress was unable to give assistance; and many, under promise of protection, gave Clinton their paroles not to take up arms against the king. Clinton soon violated his promises by proclaiming that all who would not serve in the British

1780

Clinton's
proclamation.

THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON.

After the picture by Chappel.

army should be treated as rebels. His injustice led numbers of the paroled men to take up arms again in the patriot service rather than be forced to fight against their country.

278. Cornwallis in Command. — Clinton had hoped to make short work in the South and then return north to watch Washington; but the long defense of Charleston had so delayed him that he could not finish the Southern campaign in person. Early in June he embarked for New York, leaving Cornwallis in command in the South with instructions to complete the subjugation of South Carolina and then to conquer North Carolina and Virginia.

Clinton
leaves the
South.

Cornwallis,

1780

279. Partisan Warfare.— But South Carolina was not conquered. The Whigs gathered under intrepid leaders and carried on a partisan warfare. "They were neither regulars nor militia, but men who worked one day and fought the next." Mounting their plow horses at a moment's notice, and moving quickly in little bands, they would strike detachments of the enemy sudden and severe blows, and as quickly disappear again. Patriots from North Carolina and Georgia joined in the struggle against the invaders. Although in every other part of the country

The war
carried on
by partisan
bands.

there was inactivity, these bands kept up the war. The British, harassed and perplexed by sudden attacks, were checked in their efforts to subdue the state.

The partisan
leaders.

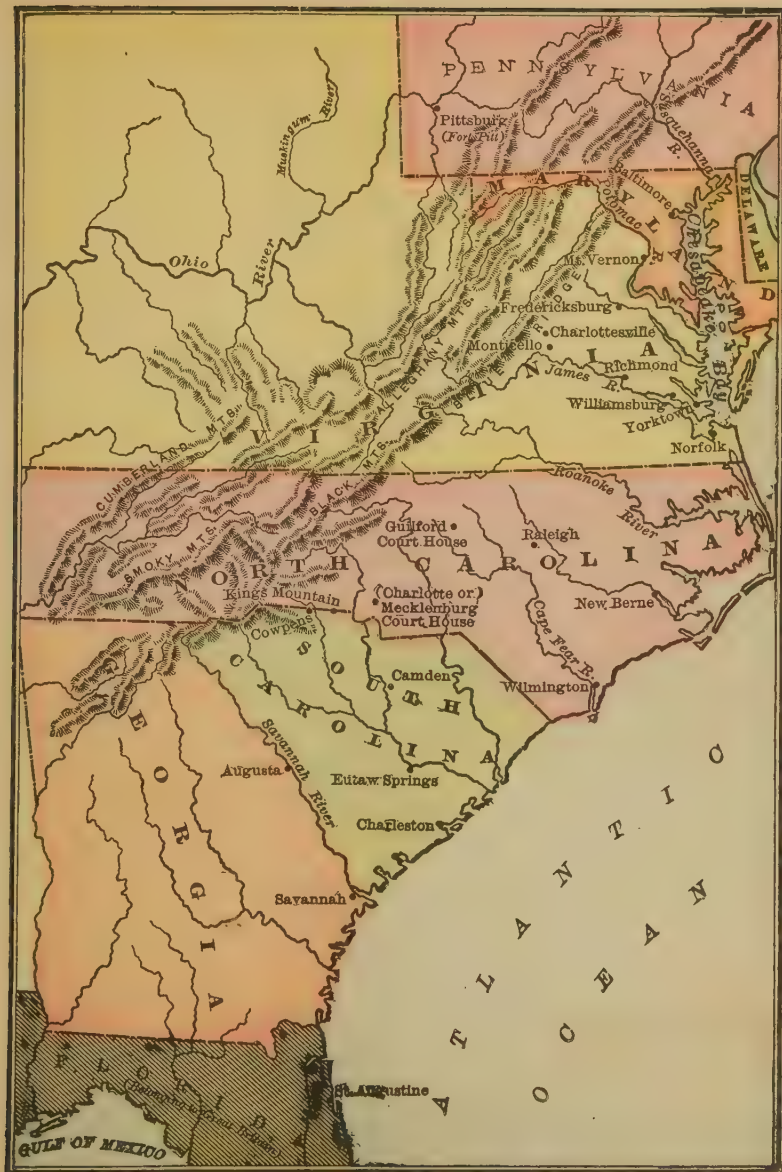


THOMAS SUMTER.

Chief among the partisan leaders were Francis Marion, Thomas Sumter, Andrew Pickens, and Elijah Clarke, the last operating chiefly in Georgia. Marion and Sumter were particularly active. The British called Marion "The Swamp Fox" and Sumter "The Game Cock."

Gates in
command at
the South.

280. Battle of Camden.— At length Congress sent to the aid of the state a few Southern troops from Washington's army. General Gates was placed in command. Militia flocked to his standard, and confident of victory he advanced against the British post at Camden, in South Carolina. Upon the same night Gates and Cornwallis marched to attack each other, and before daybreak the next morning, August 16, the armies, to their mutual sur-



REFERENCE MAP FOR THE REVOLUTION
SOUTHERN STATES

prise, met at a point some miles from the village. Each drew off after a sharp skirmish in the dark, but when dawn came the battle was renewed. The militia, which composed a large part of Gates's command, fled at the first fire; and after a stubborn resistance, in which the gallant De Kalb was killed, his regulars were compelled to give way before overwhelming numbers. The routed Americans scattered in every direction.

1780

Defeat of
Gates at
Camden,
Aug. 16.

De Kalb
killed.

281. Battle of King's Mountain. — Once more the outlook was disheartening. The capture of one American army at Charleston had been followed within a few months by the dispersion of another at Camden, and for a time not a partisan leader could gather forces enough to remain in the field. Bands of ruffians roamed the state; Whigs were murdered, their houses burned, and their children driven into the forests.

Elated by his victory at Camden, Cornwallis marched to Charlotte, determined upon reducing North Carolina. But there soon came a change from the gloom that had settled over the patriot cause. Among the partisan bands that had so annoyed the enemy in South Carolina were some from the country beyond the mountains. Major Ferguson, who was in the upper part of South Carolina recruiting Tories, sent a message to the Westerners that if they did not remain quiet he would march over the mountains, hang their leaders, and lay waste the country. The hardy Westerners determined not to await Ferguson's coming, but to go forward and fight him. Collecting from southwestern Virginia and the Watauga settlements (now Tennessee), they crossed the Alleghanies, pushed on into South Carolina, and attacked Ferguson, October 7, in his strong position on King's Mountain. Ferguson's force consisted of about eleven hundred men. He was slain,

Cornwallis at
Charlotte.

Major
Ferguson's
message to
the Western
Whigs.

Their
response.

British
defeated at
King's
Mountain,
Oct. 7.

1780

nearly half of his command killed or wounded, and every survivor captured.

This victory was the turning point of the war. Jefferson called it the "joyful turn of the tide."

Cornwallis
retreats.

King's Mountain almost broke the power of the enemy in the South. The disheartened Tories would not give Cornwallis the help he expected, and the British general, instead of proceeding with the conquest of North Carolina, sought safety by retreating into South Carolina.

Arnold's
gallantry.

282. **Treason of Arnold.**— One of the saddest episodes of the war occurred this year. General Benedict Arnold, who had fought with conspicuous gallantry on many battlefields, cherished a grievance because he had not received the promotion which he thought he deserved. To add to his discontent, while he was in command at Philadelphia

Courtmar-
tialed.

serious charges were brought against him. He was court-martialed, and though acquitted of the main charges, his indiscretions had been so marked that he was sentenced to be reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. Washing-

His
indiscretions.

ton gave the reprimand with his accustomed delicacy, but Arnold brooded over his disgrace, and determining on revenge, plotted to betray his country. For this purpose he entered into an agreement with General Clinton, and his treachery being unsuspected, he persuaded Washing-

Opens com-
munications
with Clinton.

ton to give him the command of West Point, the most important post on the Hudson, holding within its walls the ammunition for the whole army. The plot not only involved the betrayal of this post, but also the entrapment of Washington and the destruction of the army. For his treachery Arnold was to receive a commission as a general in the British service and a sum

In command
at West
Point.

Major André.

of money. John André, a major in the British army, was sent to arrange the details with Arnold, and the

two men held a conference within the American lines on September 22.

283. Failure of the Plot. — André had safely passed the American lines on his way back to New York and was nearing the British outposts, when he was stopped by three militiamen. Papers descriptive of West Point, which were found concealed in his stockings, aroused the suspicion of his captors, and they conducted him to the nearest American commander. Through a blunder, Arnold was informed of André's capture, and the traitor escaped to the enemy. André was hanged as a spy at Tappan, New York.

1780

André
captured.Arnold
escapes to
the British.

Arnold survived for twenty-one years. He obtained the promised commission in the British army, and during the remainder of the war fought against his native land. Subsequently he made his home in England, where he died a miserable man, shunned and despised even by those who had been willing to accept his treachery.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

275. INACTIVITY IN THE NORTH.

276-280. THE BRITISH IN THE SOUTH. — British plan of campaign; the siege and fall of Charleston; South Carolina overrun; Cornwallis in command; partisan warfare and leaders; battle of Camden.

281. BATTLE OF KING'S MOUNTAIN. — The turning point of the war.

282-283. TREASON OF ARNOLD. — Grievance; court-martialed; revenge; treachery; André captured; failure of plot; Arnold in England.

CHAPTER XIX

LAST YEAR OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1781)

1781

284. **Mutinies in the Northern Army.** — The year began with American affairs in an almost hopeless condition. The continental money had now become absolutely worth-



JOHN LAURENS.

A French loan.

Articles of Confederation ratified.

less. Soldiers could get no pay and almost no clothes or food, and great dissatisfaction arose in Washington's army. Mutinies among the Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and New Jersey troops caused Congress to realize that something had to be done. Robert Morris again raised funds in America, while John Laurens, who was sent to France for the purpose, obtained another loan from the French king. Without these helps America could not have continued the war.

JOHN LAURENS was born in Charleston, South Carolina, in 1753; killed in a skirmish August 27, 1782. He served in every battle in which Washington's army was engaged, from Brandywine to Yorktown. He was only twenty-eight years old when Congress sent him to France to secure a loan. The French ministry acted so slowly upon his request for money that Laurens demanded and obtained an interview with the king in person and from him obtained the loan. Congress gave Laurens a vote of thanks for his successful negotiation.

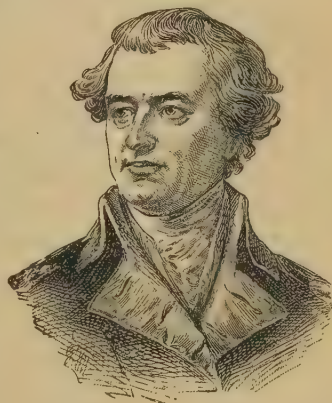
285. **Articles of Confederation.** — The Articles of Confederation which Congress had adopted in 1777 went into effect on March 1, 1781, when they were ratified by Maryland, the last state to do so. These Articles were the plan of

government for the United States until the adoption of the Constitution.

1781

286. Battle of Cowpens. — Meanwhile the fragments of the army defeated at Camden were collected and placed under command of General William Smallwood, of Maryland. General Nathanael Greene, whom Congress appointed to command all the Southern forces, using this force as a nucleus, made a camp on the Pee Dee River in eastern South Carolina, and sent a detachment under General Daniel Morgan to the western part of the state.

Nathanael Greene.



Daniel Morgan.

Tarleton and
Morgan at
Cowpens,
Jan. 17.

NATHANAEL GREENE.

Cornwallis ordered Tarleton to crush Morgan; he himself would gain Morgan's rear and cut off all fugitives. Tarleton's forces fell with terrible onslaught upon the Americans at Cowpens, on January 17; but Morgan and his men not only stood their ground, but completely routed the enemy, chasing Tarleton many miles. Morgan, knowing that Cornwallis with a large army was only twenty miles away, retired with his prisoners into North Carolina.

287. A Memorable Retreat. — Cornwallis pursued Morgan and reached the Catawba River only two hours after the Americans had passed over. Feeling sure he could overtake them, he waited until morning to cross. But in the night a heavy rain so swelled the stream that he was delayed for hours. Greene, leaving his army in South Carolina, joined Morgan and took charge of the retreat. Cornwallis appeared at the Yadkin just as the

Greene's
retreat across
North
Carolina,
February

1781

rear guard of the Americans had gained the other side. Again a freshet detained him, and he could not cross until the next day. Greene, though now joined by his army, was not strong enough to risk a battle, and continued his retreat northward and crossed the Dan into Virginia. Cornwallis, on reaching the Dan, was for a third time kept back by rising waters. There he gave up the chase. This is one of the memorable retreats of history.

Greene gives
battle to
Cornwallis,
March 15.

Greene
retreats.

288. Battle of Guilford Court House.—Greene, after resting and recruiting his army, returned to North Carolina to give battle to the enemy. He met Cornwallis at Guilford Court House, near the site of Greensboro, on March 15. Though Greene now had a larger army than Cornwallis could muster, a great part of his force was militia. After a gallant fight the American line was forced back; yet the British had suffered more than the Americans, losing six hundred men while the Americans lost only four hundred. Greene, not knowing that the advantage was on his side, ordered a retreat. As Cornwallis retained the field he claimed the victory, but his army was so badly shattered that he hurriedly withdrew to Wilmington. As a result, all the state except that town was recovered by the Americans.

Cornwallis
retreats.

The battle of Guilford Court House was one of the severest of the Revolution, and it had a most important effect. Cornwallis could not remain in North Carolina after this battle, and he could not return to South Carolina except by going to Charleston by sea, so he moved into Virginia. He left behind him states yet unconquered, and he entered Virginia with forces too weak to cope with Washington.

289. South Carolina and Georgia Recovered.—During the absence of Greene's army the partisan bands had

to contend alone against the strong British forces that had remained in South Carolina. But they did their work well. They waged a warfare that was wearing away the enemy "piece by piece." They defeated exposed detachments; they captured outlying posts; they seized trains of ammunition and supplies.

1781
Activity of
the partisans

Colonel Rawdon, who commanded the British forces, had his main army at Camden. General Greene, having determined not to follow Cornwallis into Virginia, but to help recover South Carolina, turned his army southward and marched directly toward Camden. Rawdon met and defeated him at Hobkirk's Hill on April 28. But Rawdon could not remain at Camden; for Sumter, scouring the country in his rear, and Marion and "Light Horse Harry" Lee, capturing a fort on the road between Charleston and Camden, cut off supplies intended for his army. He therefore evacuated the town and retired toward Charleston.

Greene
advances.

Rawdon de-
feats Greene
at Hobkirk's
Hill, April 28

Rawdon
retreats.

Within the next two months the partisans seized so many posts that the British forces abandoned entirely the upper sections of South Carolina and Georgia, and fell back toward the coast.

290. Battle of Eutaw Springs. — During the heat of the summer Greene rested his troops; but on September 8 he encountered the enemy under Colonel Stuart in a severe battle at Eutaw Springs, about sixty miles from Charleston. The British were driven from the field, and the victors fell upon the enemy's camp, enjoying all the good things found there. While the Americans were in this disorganized condition they were suddenly attacked by the British, who had rallied, and the patriots were forced to retire. Yet on the second night after the battle the British also withdrew, and continued to retreat until they reached Charleston.

Greene gives
battle at
Eutaw
Springs,
Sept. 8,
and suffers
another
defeat.

The British
retreat.

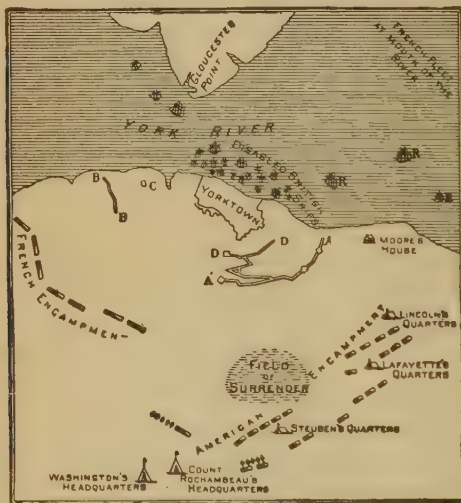
1781

The enemy now held, south of Virginia, only Charleston and Savannah.

291. Arnold and Cornwallis in Virginia. — Early in the year Benedict Arnold led an army into Virginia. The state had weakened her own defense by sending many of her soldiers to the assistance of the Carolinas. Richmond was burned and the region along the James plundered. When Cornwallis arrived in Virginia, in May, he sent Arnold back to New York, as he was unwilling to have the traitor with him. Cornwallis, no less than Arnold, wan-

Richmond
burned.

Cornwallis in
Virginia.



SKETCH-MAP OF YORKTOWN.

AA = French and American batteries. BB = French batteries.
C = British redoubt. RRR = French ships.

tonly destroyed property wherever he went. But Lafayette and Wayne pressed him so closely that he retired toward the seacoast, and finally, in obedience to orders from Clinton, took position at Yorktown, on York River, which place he fortified.

292. Siege of Yorktown. Surrender of Cornwallis. — A large French army, commanded by Count Rochambeau, which

The French
army.

had been at Newport all the past year, joined Washington on the Hudson in July. Washington had expected to attack Clinton in New York, but a campaign against Cornwallis at Yorktown was decided on. In August the

allied forces began their forced march southward. They arrived at Yorktown late in September, and in a few days had Cornwallis completely hemmed in on the land side. A French fleet, under Count de Grasse, which had come up from the West Indies and driven off the British fleet, blockaded the river so that assistance could not reach

1781

Washington moves his army toward Virginia.

Cornwallis encircled.



THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN, OCTOBER 19, 1781.

From the painting by Trumbull, in the Capitol at Washington.

the enemy from the sea. The forces of the allied armies amounted to about sixteen thousand, while Cornwallis had a much smaller number. Closer and closer the besiegers drew their lines around the British general: they battered his works with heavy cannon, and took two of his redoubts by assault. Having no chance for escape, Cornwallis surrendered on October 19. About seven thousand soldiers, besides a large number of marines, Tories, and negroes, were made prisoners. A considerable quantity of military supplies was also captured.

The relative forces.

The siege.

The surrender, Oct. 19

1781

What Great
Britain had
lost by the
war.

Treaties of
peace.

Each state
free and
independent.

The
boundaries.

Head-
quarters at
Newburg.

293. Treaties of Peace.—The joy in America over the surrender of Cornwallis knew no bounds. Though skirmishing continued for some time longer in South Carolina and Georgia, yet Yorktown meant the end of the war. Great Britain had lost many thousands of men and spent millions of pounds in the fruitless attempt to subdue the colonies, and had become engaged in war with Spain and Holland, as well as with France. The British people were weary of the struggle and forced the king and ministry to agree to peace on terms acceptable to America. Negotiations for peace proceeded for two years. A preliminary treaty between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Paris on November 30, 1782, and a permanent treaty was signed at the same place on September 3, 1783.

The treaty declared the several states, each by name, to be free and independent states. The boundaries of the United States were fixed as follows: the western boundary was the Mississippi River; the northern boundary was substantially the same as it is to-day east of that river; the southern boundary was the present northern boundary of Florida extended to the Mississippi.

Great Britain also made, in 1783, treaties of peace with France, Spain, and Holland. Florida was ceded back by Great Britain to Spain.

294. Disbandment of the Army.—Though Charleston and Savannah had been evacuated in the previous year, New York was held by the British until November 25, 1783. While waiting for the final adjustment of the peace negotiations, Washington made his headquarters at Newburg, New York. The treasury of the government was empty, and the soldiers, who had been for a long time without pay, justly feared that even with the return of peace they would not get their dues. The dissatisfaction in the army

increased to an alarming extent. This period was one of the most critical in the history of the country. On one occasion a serious mutiny threatened, but Washington averted it with the consummate tact that he always possessed.

1781

The army discontented and mutinous.

Washington never displayed greater patriotism than at this time. He was the idol of the army and the people, and could have secured for himself absolute power. It was even suggested that he be made king, but he spurned all thought of self-advancement. By means of furloughs he gradually and quietly disbanded the army, and the brave defenders of their country returned penniless to their homes. Washington resigned his commission on December 23, at Annapolis, Maryland, where Congress was then in session. (He then retired to Mount Vernon, his beautiful home in Virginia, carrying with him the love of his countrymen and the admiration of the world.)

Washington's unselfish patriotism,

The army disbanded.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

284. MUTINY IN THE NORTHERN ARMY.—Currency worthless; Robert Morris and John Laurens raise funds; France makes loan.
285. ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.
- 286–288. BATTLE OF COWPENS.—A memorable retreat; battle of Guilford Court House; result.
- 289–290. SOUTH CAROLINA AND GEORGIA RECOVERED.—Hobkirk's Hill; Camden; Eutaw Springs; end of Southern campaign.
291. ARNOLD AND CORNWALLIS IN VIRGINIA.
292. YORKTOWN, SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.
293. TREATIES OF PEACE.—What the war cost Great Britain; treaty of September 3, 1783; terms; boundaries of United States; treaties with other countries.
294. DISBANDMENT OF ARMY.—Dissatisfaction in army; Washington's influence.

PART IV. — THE CONFEDERATION

1781-1789

CHAPTER XX

STRENGTHENING THE GOVERNMENT

295. Weakness of the General Government. — The government formed by the Articles of Confederation (see Sec. 261) was so imperfect that statesmen saw from the beginning that it would fail. The states reserved great power to themselves and gave little to the Confederation. The government of the United States was vested in a Congress of one house, to which delegates were elected annually, and in which each state, large or small, had one vote. The affirmative vote of nine states in Congress was required for the passage of nearly every important act, and the consent of the legislature of every state was necessary to amend the Articles of Confederation. There was no executive officer, such as the President of to-day.

The states obeyed congressional enactments or not, as they pleased. Congress was given the right to declare war and make peace, yet it could not raise troops; it could make alliances and treaties with foreign nations, yet could not compel the states or the people to conform to them. Money for the support of the general government was to be raised by requisitions from Congress upon the several states, but the states gave little attention to the

ears for the republic.

A weak general government.

The state, not the Confederation, dominant.

How the funds to support the government were raised.



LAND CLAIMS
OF THE
THIRTEEN ORIGINAL STATES
IN 1763.

New York claimed all the lands west of the Alleghany Mts.
and North of the Ohio River belonging to the Six Nations.

demand. Alexander Hamilton aptly said the government was "fit neither for war nor peace."

296. The Northwest Territory. — The government provided for by the Articles of Confederation did not go into operation until 1781, because Maryland withheld her consent until that year. Maryland had been unwilling to join the Confederation until the claims of other states to the western lands should be set aside. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Virginia based their claims to the country north of the Ohio upon their charters, while New York held a claim through treaties with the Indians. Virginia claimed by far the greater part of the Northwest, and her claim was strengthened by the fact that her soldiers under Clark had taken possession of the territory. Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia made claim through their charters to territory south of the Ohio.

Claims to the western lands.

North of the Ohio.

South of the Ohio.

Maryland's contention.

Maryland denied the validity of these claims, and held that the western lands should belong to the general government. She also said that the separate possession of these lands would give the states claiming them unfair advantage over the others. New York in 1780, and Virginia in 1781, ceded to Congress their claims to lands north of the Ohio. Thereupon Maryland, without waiting for cessions from the other states, adopted the Articles of Confederation. Massachusetts in 1784, and Connecticut in 1786, surrendered their claims. The government purchased, through treaties, the claims of the most important Indian tribes to the greater part of the territory. Thus the lands north of the Ohio became the undisputed property of the general government.

Lands north of the Ohio become the property of the United States.

The cession was made by the states on the condition that the lands should be sold to pay the debts of the United States, and that as soon as the population was

The condition upon which the states yielded their claims.

Origin of the territorial governments.

Marietta settled, 1788.

Two governments in conflict.

sufficient, states should be made from the territory and admitted to the Union on an equal footing with the older states. Congress arranged for the sale of the lands, and in 1787 passed the "Ordinance of 1787," forming "The Territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio." Slavery was to be forever excluded from the territory. Provision was made for a government under the direction of Congress until the territory should be converted into states. In 1788, Marietta, the first permanent white settlement in Ohio, was founded by a party of people from New England. In 1789, General Arthur St. Clair was appointed first governor of the Northwest territory. This territory covered the present states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota.

297. The "State of Frankland." — In 1784, North Carolina ceded to the general government her claim to lands west of the mountains, whereupon the people of the Watauga settlements and neighboring counties (now Tennessee) organized an independent state with John Sevier as governor, and called it the "state of Frankland," or "Franklin." North Carolina in the meanwhile repealed the act ceding the lands, and ordered that the government of Frankland be abolished. The order was not immediately obeyed, and for a time both the



JOHN SEVIER.

old and the new state made laws for and held courts in the territory. Both attempted to collect taxes; but the settler, not knowing which was the legal government, paid

to neither. In 1788 the "state of Frankland" came to an end, and full allegiance to North Carolina was restored.

298. Financial Distress.—With the coming of peace the people, thinking that prosperity would immediately follow, became extravagant and ran into debt. As colonists they had been forbidden to manufacture many things; consequently, they had bought nearly all manufactured articles from England, and had paid for them with the proceeds of their exports. When the war closed, the Americans, still without factories, renewed their heavy purchases from England. But Great Britain, recognizing the weakness of the young republic, forbade, as formerly, Americans to trade with the British West Indies except in British ships, and taxed all American products exported to Great Britain in other than British vessels. Spain refused to have commercial relations with America, and thus prevented trade with the Spanish West Indies. With such checks upon their outgoing trade, Americans could not pay for what they had bought from England, and financial distress became widespread.

Policy of
Great Britain

Spain.

299. Paper Money and Stay Laws.—The condition of domestic trade was even more deplorable. The only specie was foreign coin, and there was little of that, as the most of it had been sent to pay debts abroad. The people could not meet their debts at home because they could get no money, and they set up a loud cry for relief. In the emergency, the states, with few exceptions, issued paper money. This currency had no real value, but some of the states made it "legal tender"—that is, made it lawful money for paying debts. Nobody would take the worthless money, and business came to a standstill. Stay laws, postponing the payment of debts, were passed.

Domestic
trade.

Paper
money.

Relief could not come from such legislation **Debtors**

Debtors
become
violent.

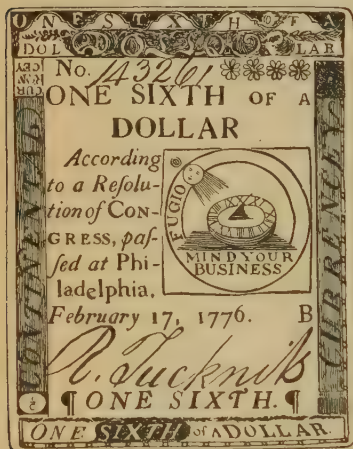
The "Shays
Rebellion."

grew riotous. In New Hampshire they threatened the legislature with violence because it had not relieved them, and in Vermont they refused to allow the courts to sit because suits for debts were to be tried. In New Jersey they nailed up the doors of court-houses, and in Virginia they burned court-houses. The most serious trouble occurred in Massachusetts, where debtors, led by Daniel Shays, prevented the courts from trying cases involving

debts. They committed such depredations (1786-1787) that it was necessary for the militia to suppress this disorderly movement, which is known in history as "Shays' Rebellion."

300. Efforts to obtain Revenue.

— In financial matters, the general government was faring no better than the people. The war had left the United States with a debt of more than fifty million dollars. There was no money in the Treasury with which to pay the interest on this debt or to meet current expenses. Requisitions upon the states for funds were refused or



Face.

FACSIMILE OF CONTINENTAL CURRENCY.

The United
States debt.

Congress
powerless be-
cause every
state must
consent.

evaded. As early as 1781 Congress asked for authority to levy a duty upon imports in order to raise a revenue; but the consent of all the states was necessary, and Rhode Island refused. Congress renewed the request in 1783, and this time New York refused. The objecting states took the ground that the concession would endanger the rights of the states by giving too much power to the general government.

301. The Annapolis Convention.—The country was rapidly drifting toward anarchy when the legislature of Virginia invited the other states to send commissioners to a convention to consider plans for giving Congress power to regulate commerce. Commissioners met at Annapolis in September, 1786. As only five states were represented, the Convention did nothing beyond recommending that a general convention meet in the following year, for the purpose of devising measures for making the general government efficient.

Virginia
proposes a
convention

302. The Constitutional Convention.—The Convention met in Philadelphia, in May, 1787, with George Washington as presiding officer. Every state except Rhode Island was represented. The Convention framed the CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Constitu-
tion framed.

303. Outlines of the Constitution.—The Constitution divides the government into three branches—legislative, executive, and judicial.

The three
branches of
government.

(1) *The Congress.*—The legislative branch, called Congress, consists of two houses—the Senate and the House of Representatives. In the Senate every state has two members, and in the House the representation is based upon population. Senators are elected by the state legislatures and serve for six years. Members of the House are elected by the people and serve for two years. Among the powers conferred upon Congress are the following: to levy taxes, duties, and imports; to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the states; to coin money; to establish post-offices; to declare war; to raise and support armies; to provide and maintain a navy.

The two
Houses of
Congress.

The powers
of Congress.

(2) *The President.*—The executive is one officer, called President, whose duty it is to see that the laws of

The
executive.

¹ Senators are now elected by the people. See Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution.

Term of
office.

the United States are faithfully executed. He may veto a bill passed by Congress, but Congress may still make the bill a law by passing it over the veto by a two-thirds vote of each house. The President's term of office is four years, and he is chosen by an electoral college in which each state is entitled to as many votes as it has members of the two houses of Congress.

A Vice President, who is elected at the same time as the President, is the presiding officer of the Senate; in case of the removal, death, resignation, or disability of the President, he becomes President and serves for the remainder of the term.

The courts.

(3) *The Court.* — The judicial branch consists of a supreme court and such inferior courts as Congress may establish. It has jurisdiction over all suits of law and equity in matters pertaining to the general government, and all controversies between states or between citizens of different states. The judges hold office during good behavior.

Compromises
necessary

304. Two Compromises. — The convention while at work on the Constitution was not always harmonious. Debate was frequent, and at times discussion became heated. Many conflicting interests had to be reconciled, and two compromises are worthy of notice.

Equal repre-
sentation in
Senate;
according to
population in
House.

The first compromise was between the larger and the smaller states. The larger states desired that all representation in Congress be based upon population. To this the smaller states objected. After a bitter debate, the plan which allows every state equal representation in the Senate, and apportions representation in the House according to population, was agreed upon.

The second compromise was between New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, commercial states, and

South Carolina and Georgia, agricultural states. The commercial states desired that a simple majority vote of each house of Congress should regulate commerce, while the agricultural states advocated a two-thirds vote. South Carolina and Georgia favored also a continuation of the slave traffic. At that time slaves were held in all the states except Massachusetts, and in that state slavery had been abolished but a few years before. In the North, where slavery had never been profitable, opposition to the system had steadily grown, and most of the Northern states had already begun a gradual emancipation of the slaves within their limits. In the South there were about twice as many slaves as in the North. Mason and Dixon's line, the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland, was recognized even at that early day as the division line between the "free" and the "slave" states. Thus the question of slavery had become sectional.

The commercial states compromise in favor of slavery.

The New England states made a "bargain," as it was called, with the southernmost states, the result of which was the provision that a majority vote of each house of Congress should regulate commerce, and that the importation of slaves should not be prohibited before 1808.

The bargain.

305. Ratio of Representation. — The membership of the House of Representatives was apportioned according to population; and it was provided that in reckoning the number of inhabitants in a state, five slaves should be counted as three white persons. This ratio had been fixed by the Congress of the Confederation in 1783, when it was desired to make population the basis for taxation.

How slaves were to be counted in regard to Congressional representation.

306. The Constitution Adopted. Washington elected President. — The Constitution, when completed, was submitted by Congress to the several states for ratification. It was not adopted without considerable opposition, as

Opposition to
the adoption
of the
Constitution.

many thought it granted too much power to the general government. It was at this time that Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay successfully combated, in a series of able papers,¹ the objections to the Constitution. Ratification by nine states was necessary for the establishment of the Constitution over the states ratifying. By the end of July, 1788, every state except Rhode Island and North Carolina had adopted the Constitution. Virginia and New York expressly proclaimed the right of reassuming the powers granted the general government, that is, the right of secession. Rhode Island, in adopting the Constitution two years later, did likewise.

The
Constitution
adopted.

The first election for presidential electors was held in January, 1789. For the Presidency there was but one choice: all eyes turned to George Washington, who received every electoral vote. John Adams of Massachusetts was elected Vice President.

George
Washington
first President.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 295. WEAKNESS OF THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT. — States retain power limitations of Congress.
- 296. THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY. — Ordinance of 1787.
- 297. THE STATE OF FRANKLAND.
- 298-300. FINANCIAL DISTRESS. — Cause; action of Great Britain and Spain; paper money and stay laws; attempts to help government financially.
- 301. THE ANNAPOLIS CONVENTION.
- 302-306. THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION. — Three branches of the Constitution: executive, legislative, judicial; compromise measures: representation in Senate and House, commerce and the slave-trade. ratio of representation; the Constitution adopted; Washington and Adams elected, 1789.

¹ Afterwards published in book form and called "The Federalist."

CHAPTER XXI

THE COUNTRY WHEN WASHINGTON BECAME PRESIDENT

307. Population and its Distribution. — When Washington became President the Union consisted of eleven states, for North Carolina and Rhode Island had not adopted the Constitution. The first census, taken the following year (1790), showed a population, exclusive of Indians, of not (quite four million,) or just a little more than the present number of inhabitants of New York city. Nearly all of the people of the United States dwelt on the Atlantic slope. Although emigrants had found homes in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio, most of the country between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River was wilderness or prairie, and was overrun by Indians. Indeed, the race of red men extended so far east that they yet roamed over territory now within the limits of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. In Pennsylvania and Georgia their war whoop was still heard and their tomahawk still dreaded.

Eleven
states.

The
population

The Indians

On the south, the country was bounded by Spanish territory. The western boundary of the United States was the Mississippi; the immense region beyond belonged to Spain. The old French settlements beyond the Ohio were too remote to attract emigrants. Where the great city of Chicago stands, there was then but a stretch of prairie. Even Pittsburg, now the center of the great iron industry,

Mississippi
River the
western
boundary.

Great cities
then in their
infancy.

was only a straggling village in the "Far West." Cincinnati and Louisville were hardly worthy of the name of hamlets. St. Louis, New Orleans, Mobile, and Pensacola were villages in Spanish territory, and so far off did they seem that they were looked upon almost as places in another world.

Primitive
methods.

308. Agriculture.—Most of the people lived by agriculture, but the mode of farming was very crude. Wooden plows were used. There was no machine for reaping, and hardly a man in America had seen the machine for threshing which had just been invented in England. The grain was cut with a scythe, the implement which the Egyptians had been using for thousands of years, and was beaten out with a flail, made by joining two sticks together at the end with a stout cord or strap. But it was not merely the larger machines, like the reaper and the thresher, that the farmer had to do without. Many of the simplest and most common of labor-saving devices were unknown to him.

309 Agriculture and Shipping in New England.—The New England farmer had to contend against long and severe winters, yet with his crops of hay, corn, rye, and potatoes, he wrested a living from the sterile soil. His mode of life was simple; his house was small and uninviting, and he ate plain food and dressed in cheap clothes.

The New
Englander
takes to
the sea.

The New Englander found in the sea a great source of profit. In boats and ships of his own making he caught fish and harpooned whales along his native coast and on the banks of Newfoundland. He carried the products of America to the ports of Europe and the West Indies, and brought back manufactured goods. In spite of the restrictions imposed by the British navigation laws, the commerce of colonial New England had been most lucrative. During the Revolution the shipping trade almost ceased, and

The lucrative
trade.

because the weak government of the Confederation was unable to make satisfactory trade relations with other countries, it did not revive until after the government under the Constitution was organized. Yet it had already laid the foundation of the wealth of New England, and had made the inhabitants of that section mainly a commercial people.

Another source of considerable revenue to the New Englander was the slave trade. His ships brought negroes from Africa to the Southern states, where they were sold into slavery.

The slave trade.

310. Agriculture in the South.—It was in the South, where the winters are mild and short and the soil is fertile, that agriculture was most profitable. The Southern planter lived in luxury. His house, which was spacious and well furnished, stood at a distance from the public road and was approached by a beautiful avenue. On every plantation there were slaves who worked the fields or attended as servants about the master's house. The slaves lived in groups of cabins called "quarters."

The South prosperous.

The luxury of the Southern planter.

The chief products of the South were, in Virginia, tobacco, and in the Carolinas and Georgia, pitch, tar, rice, and indigo. Cotton, which now covers every year millions of acres, was only a minor product and was frequently grown in the front yard as an ornament. The difficulty of separating the seed from the fiber by hand prevented the extensive cultivation of cotton.

The Southern products

311. Manufactures.—Great Britain had placed so many restrictions upon colonial manufactures that the colonists had long been accustomed to import manufactured goods from England, or to rely upon articles made at the fire-side, and, consequently, they knew little of manufacturing. Even at the time that Washington was elected President,

Restrictions.

manufactures amounted to practically nothing. Nearly all the important inventions were patented in Great Britain, and the British law would not allow models or descriptions of them to be carried out of the kingdom. With this immense advantage, the British were able to sell their goods in this country with much profit. Until the adoption of the Constitution gave a government with strength sufficient to retaliate upon Great Britain for her selfish trade laws, there was no incentive for Americans to engage in manufacturing.

Clumsy
machinery.

There were, it is true, a few linen and woolen factories; but they were small concerns, with clumsy machinery that was worked by hand. Cotton was sometimes woven with linen, but in all America there was not a mill where cloth was made entirely of cotton. No sheetings, shirtings, checks, ginghams, or calicoes were manufactured. Iron foundries of the simplest kind, and a few sawmills and paper mills and hat factories, would perhaps complete the list of manufacturing establishments.

Domestic
handiwork.

There was a large market for articles made in the household, and from one end of the country to the other the hearthstone was a miniature factory. Father and son followed their trade at home, and mother and daughter turned the spinning wheel or plied the needle in making salable articles. From the home to the market went woolen and linen cloth, bedticks, cotton goods, hosiery, buttons, handkerchiefs, ribbons, threads, fringes, hats, shoes, nails, and many other wares.

Penalties

312. Punishment for Crime.—In some of the states punishments inflicted for the violation of law were still very cruel. Many offenses, for which slight punishments are now imposed, were then capital crimes. The whipping post, the stocks, and the pillory were yet in use. The

prisons were filthy, loathsome places, which bred disease. Some had neither window nor chimney, and in some the cells were so low that an occupant could not stand up, and so narrow that when he lay down he had little more space than in a grave. Imprisonment for debt was permitted. Into the foul prisons, and among the vilest criminals, men were cast for no greater offense than that they could not pay their debts. While, of course, the law that allowed such cruelty fell hardest on the poorer classes, yet it sometimes numbered among its victims men who had once lived in luxury or who had held high positions. Thus it was that Robert Morris, the great financier and philanthropist, having met with reverses in his old age, languished in a debtor's prison.

Prisons.

"The
ingratitude
of republics."

313. Money.—As has already been stated, the only specie in America was foreign coin, and as this was very scarce, people had to manage as best they could without it. Barter was common everywhere. Many substitutes for money were used, such as whisky in western Pennsylvania and tobacco in Virginia. In the state of Frankland, now Tennessee, bacon, whisky, brandy, linen, and the skins of wild animals were among the articles used for money; the law provided that the salary of every official from governor down should be paid in the skins of animals.

Barter.

Substitutes
for money.

From the scarcity of small money grew the custom of cutting coins into parts and passing the pieces as "change." For instance, a Spanish dollar would be cut into two or four parts, and the pieces circulated as "halves" or "quarters." Counterfeits of foreign coins were numerous. In some places they were knowingly accepted and circulated, for the people could get no better money. The craftiness of the counterfeiter imposed even upon the primitive cur-

Counterfeit-
ing.

rency of the state of Frankland. The skins of raccoons, to which the tails of otters had been sewed, were tied up in bundles and passed as otter skins.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

307. POPULATION AND ITS DISTRIBUTION.—The first census, 1790; boundaries of the United States.
- 308-310. AGRICULTURE.—Crude methods; New England farmers and sailors; Southern planters.
311. MANUFACTURES.—Factories few and simple. Why? Homemade articles.
312. PUNISHMENT FOR CRIME.—Cruelty; imprisonment for debt.
313. MONEY.—Substitutes; small change; counterfeits.



A LOG CABIN.

The first home of Andrew Jackson.

CHAPTER XXII

SOCIAL LIFE IN WASHINGTON'S TIME

314. **Life in the Cities.** — In Washington's time there was no great city in America. The largest was New York, with about thirty-three thousand inhabitants; next came Philadelphia with thirty thousand; then Boston with eighteen thousand; and Charleston, sixteen thousand.

The population of the largest towns



CHARLESTON IN 1780.

The streets were narrow and dirty and ill-paved, or more often not paved at all. They were lighted with oil lamps. These lamps gave but a feeble light and were rarely used on rainy nights. The use of gas or electricity for lighting was unheard of. In the houses candles were used. The common fuel for the household was wood. The stoves of the time were so unsatisfactory that they were not much

The streets.

The homes.

used, and the wood was burned in immense chimneys which let little heat and much smoke into the room. Coal was



TINDER BOX, FLINT, AND STEEL.

known to be in America, but it was not mined to any extent. Men little dreamed of the vast beds of the mineral which now make the United States the greatest coal producing country in the world. Charcoal was used as fuel in the blacksmith shops and foundries, and fires were started with flint and steel. Water was ob-

tained from the town pump or from wells.

Furniture.

The houses of the rich were well furnished. The massive colonial furniture, now so much valued, was imported from England; for as yet America could make only furniture of the cheap kinds. The finest china, silver, and glass appeared on the tables, while the quaint and stately "grandfather's clock" stood in the hall. Tall candelabra, for holding candles, were set on rollers so that they could be drawn from room to room. From the blazing hearth flashed the huge, well-polished andirons of brass.

Social features in New England.

315. Habits. Dress. Amusements. — The manners and customs of the several sections still differed widely. The impress left upon each community by the early settlers was very noticeable. In Boston the influence of the Puritan lingered. While some of the inhabitants of that city attended "assemblies," or balls, and gave elegant dinners, most of the Bostonians looked with disfavor upon amusements of the gayer or more worldly sort. In the interior of New England traces of Puritanism were even stronger. The New England farmer rarely read a book not of religious character; he was exceedingly grave in his demeanor, and regarded jest and humor as unwhole-

some levity. The chief pleasures for the young were corn huskings, quilting parties, and spinning matches.

In New York many of the Dutch customs prevailed, and the city was still in some respects a Dutch town. The language of Holland was almost as common as English. Signs over many of the stores were printed in Dutch, and sermons were sometimes delivered in the same tongue. The fondness of the Dutch for elaborate celebrations of feast days, such as New Year's Day, Easter and Christmas, furnished many happy moments to old and young.

Life in
New York.

Philadelphia was the richest and most fashionable city in America, but side by side with pleasure and extravagance was the Quaker's simple mode of life.

Philadelphia

The ways of the Cavalier were prominent in Richmond, and the ways of the Huguenot in Charleston. The people of the South were particularly fond of sport. Horse racing, cock fighting, hunting, and dancing were the chief sources of amusement. The Southerner delighted in entertaining, and was noted for his hospitality.

Richmond
and
Charleston.

The fashionable dress for a man consisted of a three-cornered cocked hat, a long coat with large silver buttons, a fancy waistcoat, breeches that came only to the knees, striped stockings, and pointed shoes with large buckles. The hair was powdered and worn in a queue, and the face was clean shaven. The mustache and beard were thought fit only for barbarians. Women wore gowns of brilliant color and finest material, very high hats, lofty headdresses, hoops, and shoes with very high wooden heels.

Dress.

The spinet and the harpsichord were in general use, but were slowly giving way to the piano. The cotillion, then a form of the quadrille, and the minuet, were the popular dances.

Music and
dancing.

The day-laborer.

316. The Poorer Classes. — The day-laborer lived in the meanest of houses and ate the coarsest of food. It was all he could do to procure the necessities of life for himself and family, for while wages were not half as much as they now are, the price of almost everything was much higher than now. Meat was a luxury which he seldom enjoyed. For lighting his house, he burned a piece of pine or a wick dipped in tallow. His clothes generally consisted of a flannel jacket, a checked shirt, and buckskin or leathern breeches. His wife and daughter dressed in homemade garments of the very cheapest quality.

Frontier life.

317. Beyond the Mountains. — In the West the people were leading the usual frontier life. They were busy clearing the forests and preparing the ground for cultivation, or trapping wild animals for valuable furs. They had crossed the mountains on foot or horseback, or had floated down the Ohio in boats, and had carried to their new homes little besides their trusty rifles, with which they shot game and warded off the attacks of Indians.

The roads.

318. Travel. The Inns. — By this time the stagecoach had become quite common. In the best of weather the roads were miserable, and when covered by snow or mud they were almost impassable. None of the large streams were spanned by bridges; travelers crossed at fords or by ferries. Travel was so slow that it required more time to go from New York to Boston than it does now to cross the continent. A journey from one point to another on the coast or up and down the larger streams was generally made in small sailing vessels, known as packet sloops, but as this mode of travel depended on the weather, it was more uncertain than journeying by the stagecoach.

The inns.

Houses for public entertainment were called inns, taverns, and coffee houses, and nearly every establish-

ment of this kind combined the purposes of hotel, restaurant, and bar-room. The accommodation given the traveler was, as a rule, exceedingly poor. In the cities and towns these houses were the favorite resorts of the citizens. They would meet in the public room during leisure hours to drink and play cards, for intemperance and gambling were then much more common among all classes than they are now. They would also gather there to discuss questions of the day. Speakers would address them, often with eloquence that would have graced the highest council chambers:

319. Schools. Newspapers. Post-offices. — Excepting in New England, New York, and South Carolina, schools were few. The colleges of the entire country could be counted almost on one's fingers. Even the best schools, which were in New England, were very inefficient. The many conveniences now had for teaching were lacking. The old-fashioned text-books would cause the school boy or girl of the present day to wonder how knowledge could have been gained from them. The children sat on hard, uncomfortable benches and at desks of roughly hewn wood. The room was poorly lighted and poorly heated. Boys attended the school during two months of winter, and were taught by a man; and girls attended during two months of summer, and were taught by a woman.

Colleges and
schools.

There were about forty newspapers, of which only four were issued daily. The newspapers contained little news, local or other, and were chiefly filled with advertisements and political and moral essays. A paper printed in New York would be nearly two weeks old before it reached Charleston. In the absence of newspapers, the sections kept in touch with one another through correspondence carried on by individuals. Almost every letter,

Newspapers.

whether of professional, business, or social nature, would tell what had been done by the legislature, what had been said by an orator in a great speech, or what was the sentiment of the neighborhood in regard to some question.

The postal service.

Post-offices numbered less than one hundred, while to-day they number nearly one hundred thousand. There were no postage stamps or envelopes, and the rate of postage was so high that a poor man could rarely indulge in the use of the post. Even the rich man would gladly accept the services of some passing traveler for the transmission of his letters, not only to save the expense of postage, but because, just as likely as not, there would be no post-office in the place to which the letter was to be sent.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 314-316. SOCIAL LIFE.**—The cities: population, appearance, light, heat homes; compare habits and amusements of New England, New York and the South; reasons for differences; dress; the poorer classes.
- 317. FRONTIER LIFE.** **318. TRAVEL.**—Roads; inns.
- 319. SCHOOLS, NEWSPAPERS, POST-OFFICES.**



WASHINGTON TAKING THE OATH AS PRESIDENT, April 30, 1789.

PART V.—THE NEW GOVERNMENT

1789-1817

CHAPTER XXIII

ADMINISTRATION OF GEORGE WASHINGTON

(FIRST PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1789-1797)

320. **Washington's Inauguration.** — George Washington,¹ first President of the United States, took the oath of office on April 30, 1789, in New York, which was at that time the capital. The first Wednesday in March, which fell that year on the fourth, was the day set for the government to go into operation, but senators and representatives arrived so late that it was April before Congress was organized. In recognition of the day originally set,

The first
Congress
under the
Constitution

¹ GEORGE WASHINGTON was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, February 22, 1732, and died at his home, Mount Vernon, in Virginia, December 14, 1799. At the age of sixteen he left school to become a surveyor. When not much more than a boy he showed his aptitude for military affairs. His early career was so interwoven with the history of the country that it has already been traced in these pages. Washington was a man of strong sense and sound judgment, of stainless character and unselfish patriotism. Firmness of purpose and devotion to duty guided him through his eventful life. Reverses did not make him despair, nor did successes make him overconfident. During the darkest hours of war, when slander and intrigue were busy against him, he remained steadfast. The successful Revolution exalted him above all others of his countrymen, and he might have grasped power for himself, but he was still the firm, devoted patriot. His character is not surpassed by that of any hero in history. (For portrait see frontispiece.)

Congress afterward fixed March 4 as the day for the beginning and ending of the terms of the President and Vice President and members of each house of Congress.

321. Providing for Revenue. — The new government was an experiment, a form of republic never before tried in the history of the world, and its beginning was watched not only with interest, but even with anxiety. That it had advantages was shown at the outset, when for the purpose of obtaining revenue, Congress, in 1789, placed a tariff on many foreign goods and a tonnage on ships. Such taxes the Confederation had never been able to levy. The revenue derived from these sources was large.

The beginning of the tariff, 1789.

The first cabinet.

322. The Cabinet and the Judiciary. — Departments subordinate to the chief executive were established. Washington appointed Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton of New York, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox of Massachusetts, Secretary of War. These constituted the cabinet.¹

The judiciary.

The supreme court and circuit and district courts were organized. John Jay of New York was appointed Chief Justice.

323. The Union Completed. — North Carolina adopted the Constitution in 1789, and Rhode Island in 1790, completing the union of the original thirteen states.

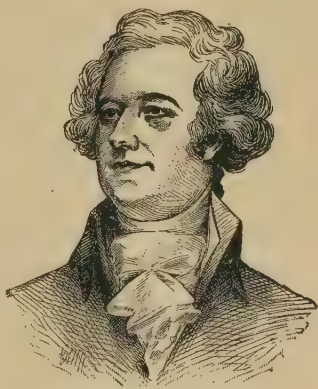
324. The Public Debt. — The debt contracted by the general government for the prosecution of the Revolu-

¹ The Constitution provided for departments subordinate to the chief executive, but made no provision for a cabinet. Washington began the custom of consulting the heads of departments about public affairs, and from this grew the cabinet. The following officers have been added to the cabinet since the administration of Washington: Secretary of the Navy (1798); Attorney General (1814); Postmaster General (1829); Secretary of the Interior (1849); Secretary of Agriculture (1888); Secretary of Commerce and Labor (1903).

tionary War amounted to about fifty-four million dollars. The debts contracted by the states for the same purpose amounted to about twenty-five million. Hamilton, as Secretary of the Treasury, proposed that the general government assume these debts of the states and pay the whole debt of seventy-nine million. The plan was adopted by Congress in 1790.

325. A Compromise between the Sections. — The bill to assume the debts of the states brought out strongly the spirit of sectionalism which had shown itself in the constitutional convention and even in the Confederation. New England favored assumption, while the South contended that each state should pay its own debt. Meanwhile the question of a permanent location for the capital was being debated, and for a time it seemed that the South would succeed both in securing the capital and in defeating the bill for assumption. Sectional spirit grew strong, and members from New England declared that their states would secede from the Union in case the South prevailed.

The general government assumes the debts of the several states 1790.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON was born in the West Indies, January 11, 1757; died at New York, July 12, 1804. He came to America to seek an education, and at sixteen entered King's College (now Columbia University). While still a student, he wrote such able articles in defense of the colonies that they were thought to be the work of a mature statesman. He served in the Revolution on Washington's staff; was a member of the Congress of the Confederation and of the convention which adopted the Federal Constitution. He was the author of most of the numbers of "The Federalist," the series of masterly papers which did so much to secure the adoption of the Constitution. The success which crowned his efforts, as the first Secretary of the Treasury, to put the disordered finances of the government upon a solid basis, has given him the highest place among American financiers — a place which more than a hundred years cannot take from him.

Sectional spirit aroused between New England and the South.

Threats of secession.

A com-
promise,

In the end the sections compromised. Some of the members of Congress from Pennsylvania and the South voted for assumption, in return for which a number of Northern members, sufficient to procure its passage, voted for a bill providing that the seat of government be established at Philadelphia for ten years, and at the end of that time be located permanently on the Potomac.

Congress
declares it
has no right
to abolish
slavery.

Just at this time, too, Congress was brought face to face with the question of African slavery. Many petitions were presented asking for the abolition of slavery and the stopping of the importation of foreign slaves. After a heated debate Congress dismissed the petitions with the declaration that it could not stop the slave trade before the year 1808, and that it had no right to abolish slavery in the states.

National
bank, 1791.

326. The National Bank. — Hamilton's financial scheme provided also that Congress should establish a national bank, and such a bank was chartered in 1791 with its chief office at Philadelphia. The United States became a stockholder of the bank. The purpose of the institution was to furnish a safe currency and one that would be uniform throughout the states. The effect of Hamilton's measures was seen in an immediate revival of the public credit.

327. Constitutional Amendments. — The first ten amendments were added to the Constitution in 1791. They had for their object the protection of the rights of the people and of the states.

Political
divisions.

328. Political Parties. — In 1787-1788 there had been two political parties in the United States, the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists. The former had favored the adoption of the Constitution; the latter had opposed it. With the Constitution established, and the first ten amend-

ments adopted, these party distinctions disappeared, but new political questions caused a division of the people into two new parties.

One party, retaining the old name of Federalist, had been in favor of the assumption of the state debts and the chartering of the national bank, because it believed in a strong central government. This party insisted upon the doctrine of implied powers¹—that is, that Congress in order to carry into effect the powers granted it, had the right to pass laws not expressly provided for in the Constitution. Alexander Hamilton was the leader of this party.

Two distinct views as to powers of Congress under the Constitution

The other contended that the rights of the states should be guarded; it believed in a strict construction of the Constitution, and denied to the general government all power not expressly granted. This party, known as Republican, recognized Thomas Jefferson as its leader. The Republican party is now known as the Democratic party, and should not be confounded with the Republican party of to-day.

Very soon party spirit grew bitter, and threats of breaking up the union became common. In the heat of party strife even Washington received abuse.

The union threatened

329. The Mint.—In 1792 a law was enacted establishing a mint for making coin—eagles, dollars, dimes, and cents.

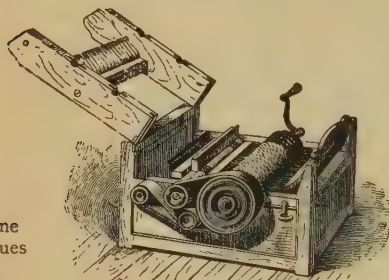
330. Washington Reëlected.—In 1792 Washington was unanimously reëlected President; Adams was reëlected Vice President.

331. Invention of the Cotton Gin.—In 1793 Eli Whitney, a native of Massachusetts living in Georgia, invented a cotton gin, a machine for the rapid separation of seed from the cotton.

¹ See Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8.

Harmar and
St. Clair.

332. Trouble with the Indians. — The Indian tribes of the Northwest which had not joined in the treaties ceding



Wayne
subdues
the
Indians.

WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN.

After the original model.

lands to the Confederation (see Sec. 296) began to war upon the settlers. They defeated General Harmar and afterward General St. Clair, who led armies against them, but were completely subdued by General Anthony Wayne in a battle fought near the Maumee River, in 1794. The tribes then agreed to a treaty, the government buying their claims to lands.

Sympathy
with the
French.

333. The French Revolution. — The people of France had set up a republic, and in 1793 were at war with most of the monarchies of Europe. Sympathy with France was strong throughout America. It was urged that the treaties made with France at the time of the American Revolution had placed the United States under obligation to help that country; but over and above any sense of treaty obligation there was a great desire to aid an old ally in its fight against monarchy. Washington wisely held that there was no treaty obligation to help France, and he issued a proclamation of neutrality, warning Americans from giving aid to either side. Nevertheless, French feeling ran high. Genêt — “Citizen Genêt,” as he was called — came to America as minister from France, and in the face of the President’s proclamation endeavored to influence the people to side with his country. He sent out privateers from American ports to prey upon the commerce of Great Britain and other nations, and he schemed to attack, with the aid of Americans, the Spanish provinces of Louisiana and

Washington
neutral

Genêt

Florida. Genêt's imprudence caused Washington to demand his recall by his government.

334. Attacks upon American Commerce. Jay's Treaty. — While the government was with difficulty keeping the people from siding with France, the British were making the task harder. Contrary to the terms of peace, they still held the forts on the northwestern border, asserting as a reason that the Americans would not pay the debts to British merchants contracted before the Revolutionary War. They also gave trouble in regard to trade: they shut out American vessels from their West Indian ports; they stopped American ships trading with France, boarded them, and seized goods which were not contraband of war,¹ and in many ways injured the commerce of the United States.

Troubles to
commerce,
1793-1794.

They claimed the right to stop American vessels and to take from them seamen of British birth and force them to serve in the British navy. This was known as the right of impressment, and was based on the British doctrine that a man could not renounce allegiance to his native land, or, as the phrase went, "Once an Englishman always an Englishman." Americans, however, claimed that a foreign-born person became, through naturalization, as much a citizen of a country as a native. Not only were British-born seamen impressed, but many sailors of American birth were carried off under pretense that they were British subjects. These unjust acts caused the American people to clamor for war with Great Britain. Washington, desiring to preserve peace, persuaded Congress to lay an embargo, which prohibited American vessels from going

Impressment,

An embargo

¹ The law of nations forbids a neutral people from sending arms and supplies of some other kinds, to a people engaged in war. All these prohibited articles are called contraband and are liable to capture.

to sea. He then sent John Jay, the Chief Justice, to England to negotiate a settlement.

Jay's treaty.

In 1794 Jay agreed to a treaty by which Great Britain was to give up the forts, while the United States was to



JOHN JAY.

guarantee the payment of certain of the debts owing to British merchants. The treaty met with much opposition in America, because it did not settle satisfactorily the question of trade relations, and because it said not a word against impressment. However, the Senate in 1795 ratified the treaty and Washington signed it. It was probably the best treaty that could have been made under the circum-

The French displeased.

stances, as it averted war for a time. Yet the French were greatly displeased because of it, and began to prey upon American commerce.

Vermont, the fourteenth state, admitted, 1791.

Kentucky, the fifteenth state, 1792.

Tennessee, the sixteenth state, 1796.

335. New States. Emigration to the West. — The number of states was increased to sixteen. Vermont, which had been an independent territory since 1777, was admitted as a state in 1791. Kentucky was admitted, with the consent of Virginia, in 1792. North Carolina had again ceded to the general government her western lands, including the settlements on the Watauga, the Holston, and the Cumberland. These lands were organized into the "Territory South of the Ohio," and then admitted in 1796 as a state under the name of Tennessee. The first-named state had free labor; the two others allowed slavery.

Emigration continued to press westward. Kentucky

and Tennessee rapidly filled up. Even the Indian uprisings gave but a temporary check to settlers going to Ohio.

336. Presidential Election. — Washington having declined to be a candidate for election to a third term, the Federalists in 1796 supported John Adams of Massachusetts for President, and Thomas Pinckney of South Carolina for Vice President. The Republicans (Democrats) supported Thomas Jefferson of Virginia for President, but scattered their votes for the Vice Presidency. Adams was elected President. Jefferson, having received the next highest vote, became Vice President. Under the Constitution as it then stood, each elector voted for two persons, the one receiving the highest vote becoming President, and the one receiving the next highest, Vice President. Thus it came about that Adams and Jefferson, members of different political parties, were elected President and Vice President.

Adams and
Jefferson.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

320. WASHINGTON INAUGURATED. 321. A REVENUE TARIFF.
 322. THE CABINET. COURTS. — Circuit and district; chief justice.
 323. THE UNION COMPLETED.
 324-326. THE NATIONAL DEBT. — State debts assumed by government; compromise measures, change in location of capital; slavery; the national bank, 1791.
 327. CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS.
 328. POLITICAL PARTIES. — Why formed?
 329. THE MINT. 330. WASHINGTON REELECTED. 331. THE COTTON GIN.
 332. TROUBLE WITH THE INDIANS OF THE NORTHWEST.
 333-334. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. — Sympathy of United States; Citizen Genêt; British attacks on American commerce; right of impressment; Jay's treaty, effect on France.
 335. NEW STATES. WESTERN EMIGRATION.
 336. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Compare with present method; Adams and Jefferson.

CHAPTER XXIV

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS

(SECOND PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1797-1801)

337. Troubles with France. — The French continued to plunder American commerce. Envoys sent to France in

1797 to effect a settlement of the trouble, were told by agents of the Directory¹ that the United States must pay for peace. The state department, in its report of the matter to Congress, substituted the letters X. Y. Z. for the names of the French agents, and from this circumstance it became known as the "X. Y. Z. affair."

So outraged did Americans feel at the suggestion that they pay for their rights, that the government immediately took steps for war. Washington was placed at the head of the army, and the commanders of the ships composing the little navy were



The "X. Y. Z. affair," 1797.

JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, October 30, 1735; died at Quincy, in the same state, July 4, 1826. He was graduated at Harvard. He was one of the ablest leaders of the Revolutionary movement and was a signer of the Declaration of Independence and the treaties of peace with Great Britain. He was minister to Great Britain during the Confederation, and was the first Vice President.

Washington commander-in-chief.

¹ The Directory: a body of five men who then held the executive power of the French Republic.

instructed to seize French armed vessels. Some small naval engagements, in which the Americans won victories, occurred in 1799-1800. Seeing that America would defend her rights, the French agreed to a treaty of peace in 1800, Napoleon being then first consul of France.

Treaty with
France, 1800.

338. The Alien and Sedition Laws. — In the discussion of public questions, many of the writings that appeared in the newspapers and pamphlets were slanderous, coarse, and violent, one political party being as guilty as the other. The Federalists held that the publications of their opponents tended to lessen the influence of the government and force the country into war with Great Britain. Besides, many of the writers for the Republican (Democratic) party were foreigners, and the Federalists thought the foreign element dangerous to the country. Therefore in 1798, Congress, in which the Federalists had a majority, passed the Alien and Sedition Acts.

Fear of alien
influence.

The Alien Law gave the President power to send out of the country all foreigners whom he considered dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States. The Sedition Law condemned to fine and imprisonment any person convicted of having written or published a false, scandalous, or malicious statement against the government, Congress, or the President. Persons were actually sent to jail for writing articles criticising the administration.

Alien and
Sedition
Acts, 1798.

339. Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. — The Republicans (Democrats) were loud in condemnation of the Alien and Sedition Laws as unconstitutional. They asserted that the Alien Law denied the right of trial by jury and violated the right of the states to admit into their territory whom they pleased, and that the Sedition Law took away freedom of speech and liberty of the press. The legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky in 1798-1799

Opposition
to the Alien
and Sedition
Laws.

The Virginia
Resolutions.

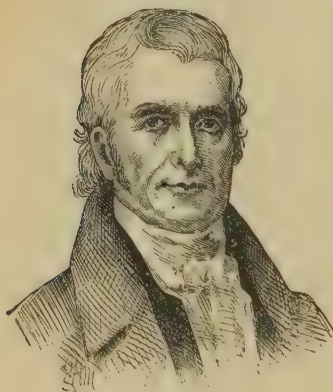
passed resolutions which have become famous. Those of Virginia were written by Madison and those of Kentucky by Jefferson. Each set of resolutions proclaimed the Union to be only a compact between the states.

The Virginia resolutions maintained that the states had a right to arrest unlawful acts of the general government, and declared the Alien and Sedition Laws unconstitutional. The Kentucky resolutions asserted that a state had the right to judge of the constitutionality of the acts of the general government, and to nullify those considered unconstitutional. They further declared the Alien and Sedition Acts to be "not law, but altogether void and of no force." Virginia strengthened her military forces and

made ready for secession. The resolutions are important because they had great influence upon the doctrines of nullification and secession.

340. Death of Washington.

—On December 14, 1799, George Washington died. The news of his death threw a deep gloom over the country. Congress held appropriate services, and everywhere the people mourned the loss of their greatest fellow-citizen.



JOHN MARSHALL.

The
Kentucky
resolutions.

Washington
becomes the
capital, 1800.

341. The Seat of Government. John Marshall. — In accordance with the act of Congress passed in 1790, the seat of government was removed in 1800 to a point on the Potomac River. On the site selected a city had been laid out and called Washington. The District of Colum

bia, in which Washington is situated, was ceded to the general government by Maryland.

In 1801 John Marshall of Virginia was appointed Chief Justice. He was one of the greatest jurists of the world. "By his decisions on constitutional questions he did more than any other one man to establish such an interpretation of the Constitution as would support the dignity and power of the Federal government." He held the office of Chief Justice until his death in 1835.

342. Presidential Election. — In the presidential election of 1800 Adams was again the candidate of the Federalists for President, and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina was their candidate for Vice President. The unpopular laws of the Federalists, and the belief that they desired a government by an aristocracy, defeated Adams and Pinckney. The candidates of the Republicans (Democrats), Thomas Jefferson for the Presidency, and Aaron Burr of New York for the Vice Presidency, received an equal number of electoral votes. According to the Constitution, the House of Representatives had to decide which of them should be President. Jefferson was chosen, and the Vice Presidency went to Burr. The tie vote caused the adoption of an amendment to the Constitution, which provides that each elector shall vote for one person for President and for another person for Vice President. This is the law to-day.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

337. TROUBLES WITH FRANCE. — X. Y. Z. letters.

338-339. ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS. — Cause, substance, effect; Virginia and Kentucky resolutions, doctrines of nullification and secession.

340. DEATH OF WASHINGTON. — Dec. 14, 1799.

341. THE NEW CAPITAL. JOHN MARSHALL.

342. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — A tie vote; Jefferson and Burr.

CHAPTER XXV

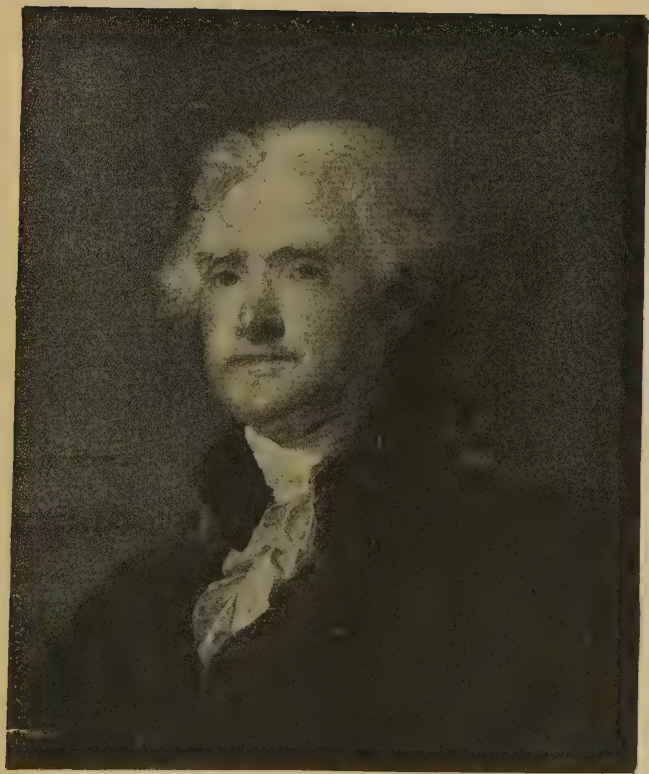
ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON¹

(THIRD PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1801-1809)

Tribute paid
to pirates.

343. War with Tripoli.—The Barbary States on the African shore of the Mediterranean Sea protected and even maintained pirates, whose custom it was to seize the vessels of Christian nations and imprison their seamen. The European governments had long submitted to paying money in tribute, that their citizens might not suffer from such outrages. America, following their example, had made a treaty with the Dey of Algiers, agreeing to pay him tribute. Similar treaties were made with the other Barbary States. But the bashaw of Tripoli grew jealous because he did not receive as much tribute

¹ THOMAS JEFFERSON was born in Albemarle County, Virginia, April 13, 1743; died at his home, Monticello, in Virginia, July 4, 1826. He attended William and Mary College. He served in the Virginia House of Burgesses during the troublesome times before the Revolution, and was prominent in opposition to Great Britain. A paper by Jefferson, entitled "A Summary View of the Rights of British America," attracted the attention of the world. While a member of the Continental Congress, he wrote the Declaration of Independence. He was Governor of Virginia, Minister to France, Secretary of State, Vice President, and President. His papers in defense of the colonies were unexcelled. He was an advocate of simplicity in government, and his long life was devoted to the promotion of education and of political and religious freedom. It was with just pride that he wrote as his own epitaph, "Author of the Declaration of Independence and of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia." By many he is considered the greatest political leader of his day.



THOMAS JEFFERSON

as was paid his neighbor, the Dey of Algiers, and in 1801 declared war against the United States.

War with Tripoli.

The war continued for four years. The American fleet blockaded the port of Tripoli, severely damaging the city by bombardment, and capturing or destroying many of the bashaw's vessels. William Eaton of Connecticut, who had been appointed American consul at Tunis, marched with a small body of men across the burning sands of the desert and seized Derne, an important Tripolitan city. Soon after this capture the bashaw consented to peace without tribute.

Derne captured, April, 1805.

344. Admission of Ohio. — In 1803 Ohio, the seventeenth state, was admitted into the Union. It was the first state carved from the Northwest Territory, and was a free-labor state.

Ohio, the seventeenth state, 1803.

345. Purchase of Louisiana. — Spain owned the great province of Louisiana, including New Orleans and the mouth of the Mississippi. She therefore controlled the navigation of the river. By a treaty with Spain, made in 1795, citizens of the United States were granted free use of the Mississippi, and the use of New Orleans, or some other suitable place, as a port of deposit. In those days transportation on land was very difficult, and the western people found it almost impossible to carry their produce across the mountains to the Eastern states. Instead, they floated it down the river and deposited it at New Orleans, there to await some ocean ship which would take it to the Atlantic states or to the West Indies.

Spain controls the Mississippi.

The Mississippi a great highway.

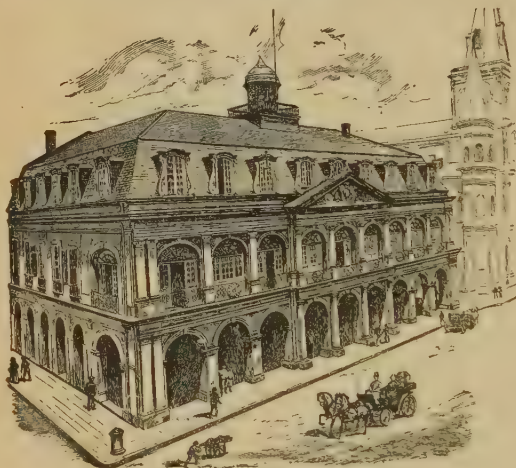
In 1800 Spain ceded Louisiana back to France, and Napoleon prepared to send over a large army to occupy the province. In 1802 the Spanish officer in charge of New Orleans closed the port to Americans. The Westerners would have gone to war with the mightiest nation of

France acquires Louisiana, 1800.

Napoleon
sells Louisi-
ana to the
United
States, 1803.

Europe rather than lose the use of the Mississippi. Jefferson realized the danger of permitting so strong a power as France to control the great waterway to the sea, and in 1803 offered to buy New Orleans and enough of the territory to give us control of the river. War clouds were again

hanging over Napoleon. In need of money, and fearing that Great Britain would seize the territory, he sold to the United States, in 1803, not a portion, but the whole of Louisiana. The price paid was about fifteen million dollars. James Monroe and Robert R. Livingston negotiated the purchase.



THE OLD CABILDO OF NEW ORLEANS.

In this the official transfer of Louisiana by France to the United States took place.

Extent of the
new territory.

Lewis and
Clark, 1804-
1806.

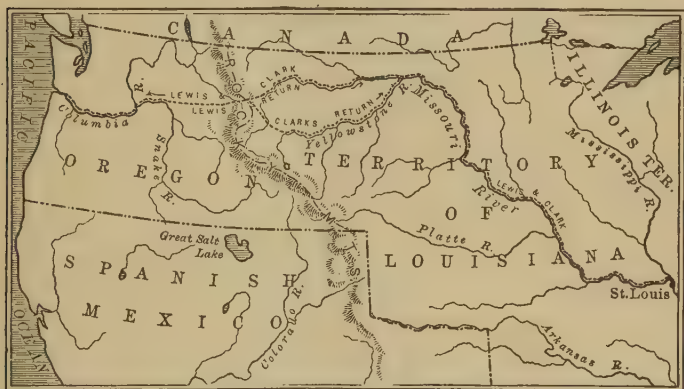
Mississippi that its acquisition more than doubled the area of the United States. Its vastness can be appreciated by consulting the map opposite page 248. So little was known of the new possession that the government sent into it exploring expeditions. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark went up the Missouri River, crossed the Rocky Mountains, traversed the region known as the Oregon country, and gazed upon the Pacific Ocean. They were absent two years and brought back much valuable information.

The new territory stretched so far westward from the Mis-

Zebulon M. Pike explored the source of the Mississippi and went as far west as the mountains in Colorado.

Pike's
expedition,
1806-1807

346. Burr and Hamilton. Burr's Downfall. — Aaron Burr, while still Vice President, had been a candidate for the governorship of New York, and had been defeated. Attributing his defeat to Alexander Hamilton, he challenged Hamilton to a duel. They met on July 11, 1804,



LEWIS AND CLARK'S ROUTE.

and Hamilton received a wound from which he died on the following day. Burr was now a ruined man. He had never possessed the entire confidence of the people, and from this time on was regarded by most persons as a criminal.

Later he was accused of engaging in a plot against the Union. Exactly what his scheme was has never become known, but it has always been believed by many that he intended to form another government, with himself at its head, in Mexico or some of the Western states and territories, or partly in both. He was arrested and tried

Burr charged
with treason.

Burr tried
and acquitted,
1807.

at Richmond on the charge of treason. There was not sufficient evidence of guilt and he was acquitted.

347. Jefferson Reëlected. — At the presidential election of 1804, the Republicans (Democrats) reëlected Jefferson President, and elected George Clinton of New York Vice President. The Federalist candidates were Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina for President, and Rufus King of New York for Vice President.

348. Further Troubles with Great Britain and France. — France had again become a monarchy, with Napoleon as emperor, and had conquered or otherwise acquired the ascendancy in European affairs. But Great Britain still struggled against Napoleon; and because her energies were employed in war, the carrying trade of the world fell to the neutral ships of America and one or two of the minor states of Europe. To deprive France of the benefits of trade with other countries and thus weaken the power of Napoleon, Great Britain in 1806 declared many European ports in a state of blockade. At once the emperor retaliated by similarly closing the ports of the British Isles. As the ports of colonies and allies were included, trade with nearly the whole world was forbidden by one belligerent or the other.

Great
Britain's
blockade.

Napoleon's
Berlin
decree.

It is true that there was no actual blockade—neither power was able to establish such, and by the rules of war a “paper” blockade is not binding upon other nations; yet the unlawful measures had far-reaching effect. The navy of each nation, scouring the seas, confiscated the cargoes of neutral ships bound for the enemy’s ports. The loss to American commerce from seizures was enormous. Great Britain, mistress of the sea, caused the greater damage, and consequently feeling in America was stronger against Great Britain than against France. Impressment of

seamen by the British went on more actively than ever. Resentment was increased by the attack of the British naval vessel *Leopard* upon the American naval vessel *Chesapeake*, off the coast of the United States, in 1807. In this attack American seamen were killed and others were carried off on the charge of being deserters from the British navy.

The Leopard
and the
Chesapeake.

349. The Long Embargo. — War with Great Britain seemed near at hand, but Jefferson wished to avoid it if possible. In 1807 Congress passed an embargo act, which forbade American ships to leave port for foreign countries. It was thought that the loss of supplies from America would induce Great Britain and France to rescind their hostile orders and decrees, but the hope was vain. The embargo, by keeping American commerce off the seas, did what the belligerents had endeavored to do with their paper blockade, while it seriously injured business at home. Ships lay idle at the wharves and trade became stagnant. Great distress followed.

The embargo
futile.

350. The Secession Movement Again. — New England, where commerce was still the chief industry, suffered most. There, more than elsewhere, the Embargo Act was unpopular; and there, more than elsewhere, it was evaded. It was derisively called the "O Grab Me" act, a name found by spelling "embargo" backwards. Federalism was still strong in New England, and the Federalists generally were favorably disposed toward the British as against the French. They asserted that the embargo was designed to provoke Great Britain to war.

The "O Grab
Me" act.

When Congress passed a law to compel observance of the embargo, loud protests were made in New England against the so-called Force Act. Prominent officials refused to obey the law, or encouraged the people to evade it. Town meeting after town meeting condemned the law

Protests by
New
England.

Secession
talked of.

Nullification
spirit in New
England.

Embargo Act
repealed.

Trade pro-
hibited with
Britain and
France.

Fulton's
steamboat,
1807.

by resolutions. Secession was openly threatened. The legislatures of Massachusetts and Connecticut proclaimed the right of nullification very nearly on the line of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1798-1799. The legislature of Massachusetts further declared the Force Act "unconstitutional and not legally binding." John Quincy Adams informed the administration that there was a plan in New England to nullify the Embargo Act and to secede and form a union with Great Britain. In 1809 the Embargo Act was repealed, and the danger of disunion passed.

351. Non-intercourse Act.—In place of the embargo, Congress passed a Non-intercourse Act, which prohibited trade with Great Britain or France or their colonies, and left Americans free to trade with other countries. The act also provided that trade should be renewed with either Great Britain or France when either revoked its measures injurious to American commerce.

352. The Steamboat.—In 1807 an event occurred which was destined to revolutionize navigation. Robert Fulton made a trip up the Hudson from New York to Albany in a boat—the *Clermont*—propelled by steam. Others before Fulton had made steamboats, but the first practically successful one was his creation.



THE "CLERMONT."

From Rergart's "Life of Fulton."

End of the
legal im-
portation of
slaves.

353. Prohibition of the Importation of Slaves.—Congress, taking advantage of the earliest opportunity allowed by the Constitution, passed a law forbidding the importation of slaves from foreign countries on and after January 1, 1808. Legal traffic in foreign slaves has never been reopened.

354. **Presidential Election.** — While the country was distracted by threatening war, the presidential election of 1808 occurred. The Republicans (Democrats) elected James Madison of Virginia President, by a large majority. They also reelected George Clinton Vice President. The Federalists had again supported Charles C. Pinckney and Rufus King.

Madison and
Clinton.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 343. WAR WITH TRIPOLI. — Tribute abolished.
- 344. OHIO ADMITTED.
- 345. THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE. — Why important? Lewis and Clark's expedition.
- 346. BURR AND HAMILTON. — The duel; Burr accused of treason.
- 347. JEFFERSON REELECTED.
- 348. WAR BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE. — Effect on America; a paper blockade; impressment and confiscation.
- 349-351. THE EMBARGO ACT. — Secession movement in New England; the Non-intercourse Act.
- 352. THE FIRST SUCCESSFUL STEAMBOAT. — 1807.
- 353. IMPORTATION OF SLAVES FORBIDDEN.
- 354. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Madison and Clinton.

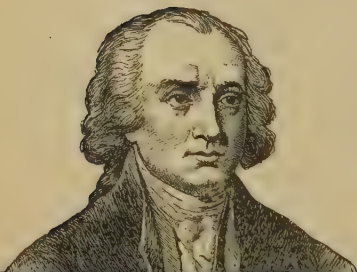
CHAPTER XXVI

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON

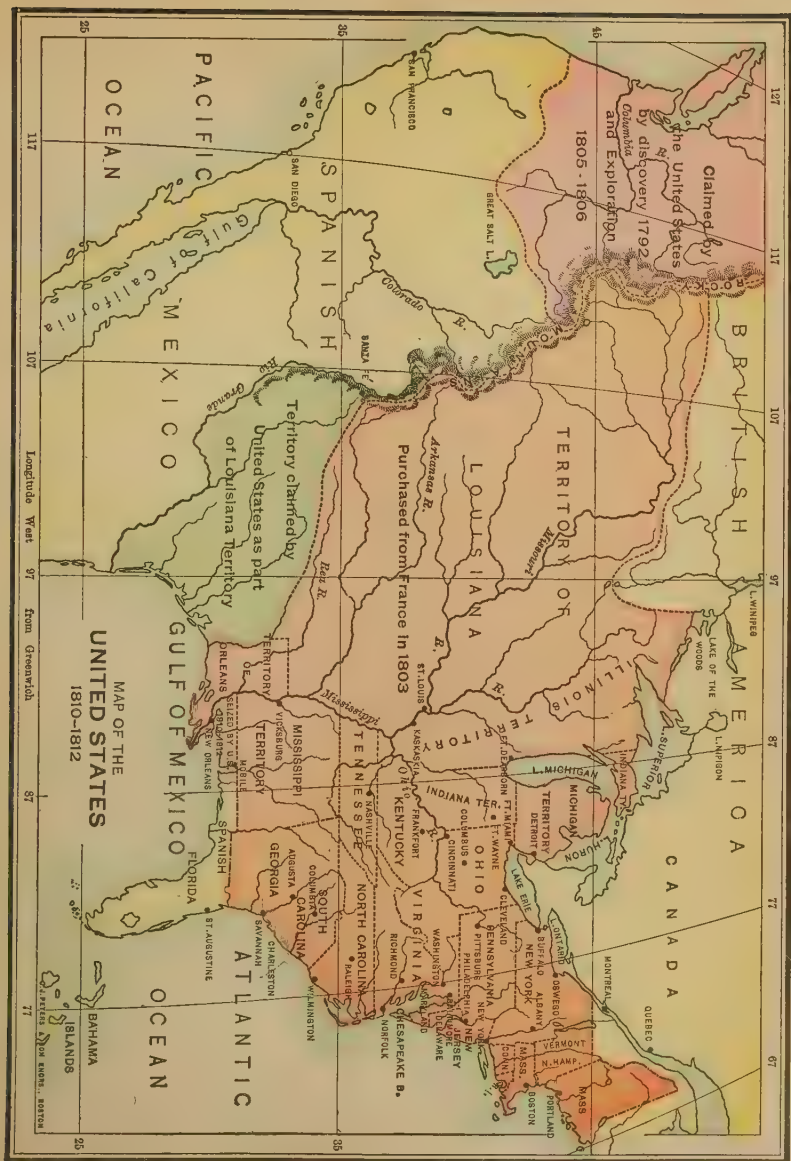
(FOURTH PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1809-1817)

SECOND WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN

Opposition
to the bank.



356. **National Bank Charter Expires.**— The charter of the national bank, established in 1791, expired in 1811. Congress refused to grant a new charter, and the bank went out of business.



become numerous and influential. So strong had been the prejudice against the national bank that even in Pennsylvania, where it was located, the legislature condemned it, affirming, in the identical language of the Kentucky resolutions of 1798 and 1799, the right of a state to nullify a law granting a new charter. Nullification

357. Affair of the *Little Belt*. Battle of Tippecanoe.—Already there seemed no honorable way for averting war with Great Britain, and two events increased the feeling of bitterness against that country. In 1811 the American frigate *President* and the British sloop *Little Belt* met in battle outside Chesapeake Bay. The British vessel, much the inferior, was badly worsted. The *Little Belt*, 1811.

Tecumseh, an eloquent warrior of the Shawnees, and his brother, the "Prophet," a leader of much influence among the Indians as a "medicine man," formed a confederacy among the tribes of the Northwest to oppose the white settlers. General William Henry Harrison, who was then governor of Indiana Territory, defeated the Indians in a severe battle near Tippecanoe Creek, in the present state of Indiana, on November 7, 1811. It was believed by many that British agents had incited the uprising. Tippecanoe,
Nov. 7, 1811.

358. Admission of Louisiana.—Louisiana, the eighteenth state, was admitted into the Union in 1812. It embraced the extreme southern part of the Louisiana purchase. The new state permitted slavery. Louisiana,
the
eighteenth
state, 1812.

359. War Declared.—The administration continued its attempts to bring Great Britain and France to terms by commercial restrictions. Soon after the inauguration of Madison, Congress repealed the Non-intercourse Act, but declared that if either France or Great Britain should withdraw its objectionable measures, the law would be renewed against the other.

The administration was artfully led to believe that Napoleon had revoked his decrees so far as they applied to America, and intercourse with Great Britain was again forbidden in 1811. This caused the British to redouble their severity and the Americans to feel deeper resentment against them. The Republican (Democratic) party was so overwhelmingly in favor of hostilities that Madison felt compelled to recommend war. Congress declared war on June 18, 1812. On account of the date it is generally known as the "War of 1812."

British
severity
increased.

War
declared,
June 18, 1812.

360. No Preparation for War.— There was utter lack of preparation for the conflict which was now certain to come. During the trouble with France (in Adams's administration) the Federalists had strengthened both the army and the navy, but the Republicans (Democrats), on securing control of the government, had again reduced the military and naval force. They looked upon large armies and navies as a menace to the liberties of the people, and as an unnecessary burden in the way of expense.

Unreadiness
for war.

When war was declared, the army consisted of about ten thousand men, commanded by inexperienced, or in many cases, incompetent officers. Only five ships of the navy were ready for sea. Yet America's purpose was not only to defend her coast, but also to undertake the invasion of Canada.

New England
opposed to
the war;
talks of
secession.

361. Opposition to the War.— New England again talked of secession, for although the war was to be waged for the protection of commerce, it was very unpopular in the commercial states. It was argued that as commerce had been damaged by the embargo more than by the depredations of foreign nations, it would be completely destroyed by the war. When news of the declaration of war reached New England, bells were tolled, business was

suspended, and flags were lowered to half-mast. The war was condemned in town meetings, and denounced by the press and the pulpit.

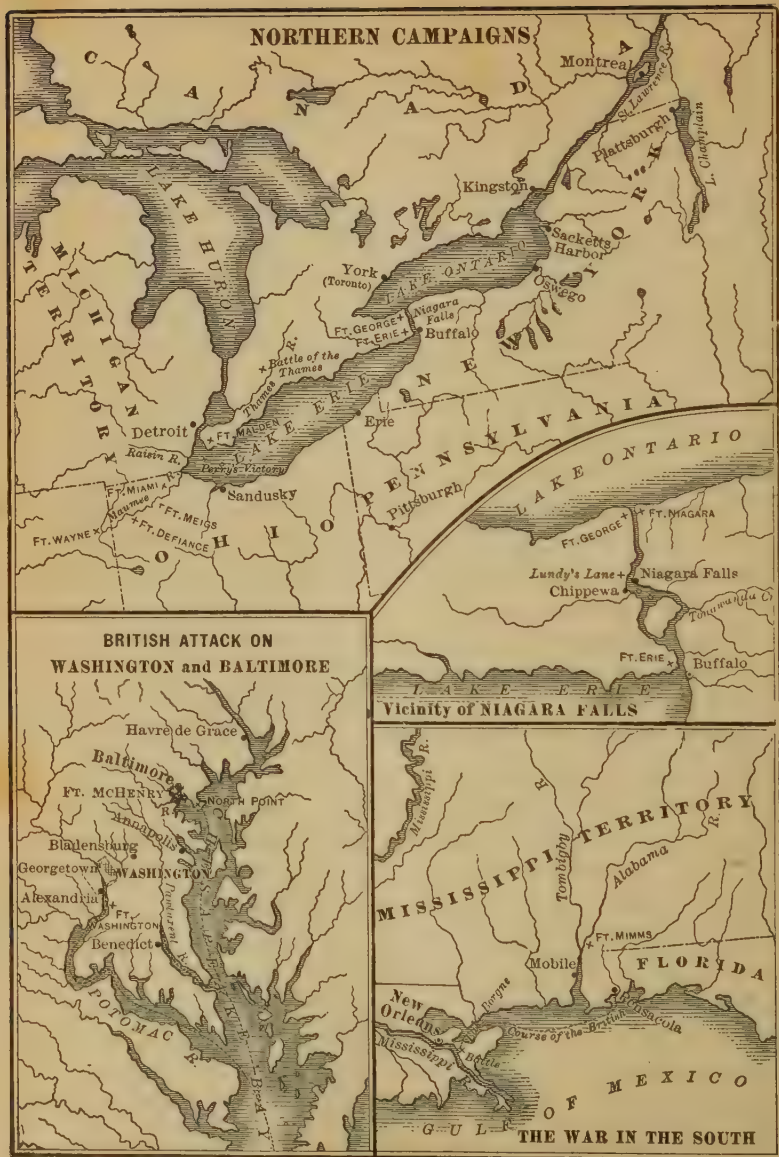
When the administration, in accordance with an act of Congress, called for militia, the governors of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island refused to obey. In their opinion the Constitution gave the administration no right to make such a demand. The supreme court of Massachusetts, the legislature of Connecticut, and the governor's council in Rhode Island sustained the governors in the belief that duty required them to refuse to obey this act of the Federal government, since they regarded it as unconstitutional. This was, in effect, nullification. ~~See~~ Practical nullification

362. Unsuccessful Invasion of Canada. — The very first land movement of the Americans was a failure. To conquer Canada three armies were to advance into that province, and uniting, seize Montreal and Quebec. One army was at Detroit under command of General William Hull, another on the Niagara River under General Stephen Van Rensselaer, and the third on Lake Champlain under General Henry Dearborn. Hull advanced into Canada, but soon retreated, and on August 16, 1812, without firing a gun, surrendered Detroit to a force composed mostly of Indians and Canadian militia. The whole of Michigan territory was thus given over to the enemy.

Hull
surrenders,
Aug. 16, 1812.

On October 13 General Van Rensselaer attempted to capture Queenstown, Canada. In this engagement Colonel Winfield Scott, afterward the famous general, acted with conspicuous gallantry. Many of the militia, asserting that the government had no right to use them for invading a foreign country, declined to cross the river, and the attack failed. General Dearborn did practically nothing, as the militia in his army also refused to march into Canada.

Battle at
Queenstown,
Oct. 13, 1812.



REFERENCE MAPS FOR THE WAR OF 1812.

363. **Victories at Sea.** — The disasters on land were in marked contrast to the successes on the ocean. The most important naval engagements of the year 1812 were American victories. On August 19 the American frigate *Constitution*, Captain Isaac Hull, destroyed the British frigate *Guerrière*, off Nova Scotia; on October 25 the frigate *United States*, Captain Stephen Decatur, captured the enemy's frigate *Macedonian*, near the Madeira Islands; on December 29 the *Constitution*, Captain William Bainbridge, destroyed the frigate *Java*, off Brazil. In these engagements the Americans had the advantage of superior ships, and a greater advantage in gunnery and seamanship.

Constitution
and
Guerrière,
Aug. 19, 1812



THE "CONSTITUTION."

Launched in 1797; now in the Boston Navy Yard.

364. **Presidential Election.** — Madison was reëlected President in 1812, with Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, as Vice President. The Federalists, as well as the dissatisfied among the Republican (Democratic) party, had supported De Witt Clinton of New York and Jared Ingersoll of Pennsylvania.

365. **Operations on Lake Ontario.** — In an effort to drive the British from Lake Ontario, General Dearborn, in coöperation with a small fleet, captured York, now Toronto, on April 27, 1813. The British lost more than half their number. General Zebulon M. Pike, who led the American attack, was killed. Some private soldiers of the American army, acting without authority, disgraced their

Second
invasion of
Canada.
York taken
by the
Americans,
April 27,
1813.

Parliament
house
burned.

flag by burning the British parliament house. The Americans took possession of the forts on the Canadian side of the Niagara River, and their ships held the enemy's fleet in blockade on the lake. But Dearborn, who was old and sick, did not follow up these successes. He was superseded by General James Wilkinson.

Movement
against
Montreal.

In November Wilkinson moved against Montreal, but circumstances proving unfavorable, gave up the expedition. Wilkinson's movement had left the line of the Niagara partly unguarded, and the British recaptured most of the posts on that river, while their fleet again secured control of Lake Ontario. Thus another unfortunate invasion of Canada had come to an end.

366. Operations on Lake Erie.—The American army near Lake Erie passed the winter in great suffering. The absence of clothes and shoes made protection from the cold impossible, and lack of food brought the soldiers near to starvation. The sickness and wretchedness of the winter at Valley Forge were repeated.

The affair of
the river
Raisin,
January,
1813.

In January, 1813, General Proctor advanced from Canada, and captured a small American force at Frenchtown, now Monroe, Michigan, on the river Raisin. He succeeded in withdrawing to Canada with all his prisoners except the wounded,—whom he left at Frenchtown. Hardly had he gone before his Indian allies set the village on fire, and forced their helpless victims to perish in the flames.

Perry's
victory on
Lake Erie,
Sept. 10,
1813.

During the remainder of the winter and the summer following, the Americans held their own against Proctor, and on September 10, 1813, were able to turn the scales against him. On that day Oliver Hazard Perry, in vessels that he himself had built on the shore of the lake, won a great victory over the enemy's fleet on Lake Erie. In the

hottest of the engagement Perry's flagship was shattered and almost every man on board was killed or injured. Nothing daunted, the gallant commander sprang into a small boat, and carrying his flag with him, was rowed through a terrific fire to another ship. The victory¹ gave the Americans control of Lake Erie, and compelled Proctor to abandon Detroit and to retire once more into Canada.

General William Henry Harrison, commanding the army of the Northwest, followed Proctor into Canada and defeated the British and Indians on the river Thames, on October 5. Tecumseh, the famous Indian warrior, was killed in this battle. The Americans retained control of Lake Erie and the Northwest during the remainder of the war.

Battle of the
Thames;
Tecumseh
killed, Oct. 5
1813.

367. *The Chesapeake and the Shannon.*—The chief naval engagement of the year was a loss to America. On June 1, 1813, the American frigate *Chesapeake*, Captain James Lawrence, was captured just outside of Boston harbor by the *Shannon*.

The
Chesapeake
captured,
June 1, 1813

368. *Uprising of the Creeks.*—The Creek Indians, dwelling in what is now Alabama, had been incited to hostilities by Tecumseh and by British and Spanish agents. On August 30, 1813, the Creeks, led by a chief named Weathersford, massacred settlers who had fled to Fort Mims on the Alabama River. Of four hundred men, women, and children, only about twenty escaped. The Indians then scoured the country and killed every white person they could find. Mixed bands of militia and friendly

Fort Mims,
Aug. 30.

¹ Perry announced his victory to General Harrison in a brief note: "Dear General: We have met the enemy and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop. Yours with great respect and esteem, C. H. Perry."

Indians avenged these outrages, defeating the Creeks in battle and refusing to give quarter.

Andrew
Jackson at
Horseshoe
Bend, March
27, 1814.

It was necessary, however, to strike the Creeks a decisive blow. On March 27, 1814, General Andrew Jackson, with a force of Tennessee militia, fell upon the fortified camp of the Indians, at Horseshoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa River, in Alabama. He inflicted upon them such heavy loss that they made peace, surrendering a large portion of their territory.

Chippewa,
July 5.
Lundy's
Lane,
July 25.

369. Third Unsuccessful Invasion of Canada. — General Jacob Brown, in command of the army on Lake Ontario, crossed the Niagara River, and engaged the enemy under General Riall on July 5, 1814, at Chippewa River, and on July 25, at Lundy's Lane. Winfield Scott again distinguished himself for gallantry in these battles. The Americans remained in Canada for some months, but retired on the approach of winter, having gained no advantage by the invasion.

British take
Washington,
Aug. 24,
1814.

370. Capture of Washington. — In August, 1814, a British force commanded by General Ross entered Chesapeake Bay under protection of a strong fleet. A detachment of about four thousand men landed and marched fifty miles across the country to Washington, which was in a defenseless condition. The President and his cabinet fled.

The British entered Washington on August 24, 1814. The President's house, the Capitol, and most of the other public buildings were destroyed. The British then made their way back to the fleet. They stated that they burned Washington because the Americans had burned the parliament house at York (Toronto) and committed other depredations in Canada.

On September 12, 1814, the British army advanced to

North Point, on the Patapsco River, near Baltimore, for the purpose of capturing that city. Here they were met and defeated by Maryland troops. General Ross was killed. On the next day the enemy's fleet attacked Fort McHenry in Baltimore harbor, continuing its bombardment for nearly two days, when it was finally driven off by the garrison. The gallant conduct of the Marylanders saved Baltimore from capture.¹

371. Operations on Lake Champlain. — The emperor Napoleon had been forced to abdicate, and the general peace of Europe allowed Great Britain to prosecute the war in America with greater vigor.

Great Britain's vigorous policy.

In September, 1814, a British army ten thousand strong, under General Prevost, marched from Canada into New York by the shore of Lake Champlain. It was supported by a fleet under Commodore Downie. To meet the enemy, the Americans had at Plattsburg fifteen hundred men under General Macomb and a naval force under Thomas Macdonough. The squadrons met on September 11 in a fiercely contested battle, and the British fleet was forced to surrender. On the defeat of his fleet Prevost hastily retired.

Macdonough's victory, Sept. 11, 1814.

372. Battle of New Orleans. — Another British army landed near the mouth of the Mississippi River. In its ranks marched many of the veterans who had served in the European wars. To defend New Orleans, General Andrew Jackson had seven thousand men, mostly militia, hastily brought together. Eight thousand trained soldiers attacked General Jackson's fortified lines near New Orleans

Andrew Jackson at New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815.

¹ The attack upon Baltimore furnished Francis Scott Key the occasion for writing "The Star-spangled Banner." Key had gone to a British frigate to secure the release of a friend who had been captured. He was detained on the vessel against his will during the night of the bombardment of Fort McHenry. His delight on the next morning that the stars and stripes still floated over the fort inspired the stirring words of this popular national hymn.

on January 8, 1815, and were repulsed. The American loss was only seventy-one men, that of the British, two thousand. The British commander, General Pakenham, was killed.

373. Treaty of Peace. — The great victory of New Orleans was won after peace had been made. A treaty had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium, on December 24, 1814; but as only sailing vessels then crossed the ocean, and about six weeks were required for the voyage, news of the peace did not reach America until February, 1815.

The ending of the war caused great rejoicing everywhere. From a military point of view it had not been brilliant, and for financial reasons it had come to an end most opportunely. The government had become almost bankrupt, and nearly every bank out of New England had suspended specie payments. The people had resorted to a currency of paper issued by towns, "wild-cat" banks, and even individuals.

Financial
conditions,
1815.

Results of
the war.

Not one of the principles for which war had been declared was settled by the treaty, yet they were all gained by the war. America had shown that she would support her claims with force, and foreign powers have never again assaulted her commerce. The world at large gained even more by the war; as its consequence, the broad principles of international law which settle the rights of nations on the sea were firmly fixed.

374. The Hartford Convention. — Although some of the bravest soldiers and seamen had volunteered from New England, the opposition of that section to the war continued to the end. A convention, to which the legislature of Massachusetts invited the other New England states, met at Hartford, Connecticut, on December 15, 1814, and remained in session until January 5, 1815. Massachu

sets, Connecticut, and Rhode Island sent delegates to the convention, which was attended also by representatives from some of the communities of New Hampshire and Vermont. The sessions were secret, and little of the proceedings has been made known.

The published report proposed some amendments to the Constitution, and made several demands on Congress; justified secession as a remedy for an uncongenial union, but one that should not be resorted to except when absolutely necessary; and affirmed the principles of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions. The convention adjourned, to meet again in June if its plans were not complied with or if peace were not declared. As news of peace reached America before the time set for the second meeting, the convention did not come together again. The Democrats openly charged that the object of the convention was disunion. The Federalist party, whose leaders had advocated the convention, was ruined.

Proceedings
of Hartford
convention

Fall of the
Federalist
party.

375. War with Algiers. — Not satisfied with the tribute paid him, and taking advantage of our war with Great Britain, the Dey of Algiers had begun to prey upon our commerce. Soon after hostilities with Great Britain had ceased, Commodore Decatur with a strong American fleet was ordered to Algiers. He frightened the Dey into a peace which relieved the United States of paying tribute for the future.

Decatur,
1815.

376. The Finances. — The war over, Congress immediately gave attention to the finances, and in 1816 established a new national bank, to continue twenty years. Other vigorous steps were taken by the administration to inspire confidence in the government. The banks resumed specie payments and public credit was quickly restored to its former healthy condition.

A new
national
bank.

Indiana, the
nineteenth
state, 1817.

377. Admission of Indiana. — In 1817 Indiana, a free labor state, became a member of the Union. It was the second state to be organized from the Northwest Territory, and the nineteenth to be admitted into the Union.

Monroe and
Tompkins.

378. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1816 the Republicans (Democrats) elected their candidates, James Monroe, of Virginia, President, and Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, Vice President. The Federalist party, ruined by its opposition to the war, carried only three states. After this election it ceased to be a national party.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

356. NATIONAL BANK CLOSED.

357. APPROACHING WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN. — The *Little Belt*; battle of Tippecanoe.

358. LOUISIANA ADMITTED.

359-361. THE WAR OF 1812. — Why declared? Lack of preparation; opposition of commercial states.

362-363. MOVEMENTS ON LAND AND SEA. — Unsuccessful invasion of Canada; naval victories.

364. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

365-366. OPERATIONS ON THE GREAT LAKES. — Lake Ontario, British success; Lake Erie, the river Raisin, Perry's victory, battle of the Thames, Americans control the Northwest.

367. THE "CHESAPEAKE" AND THE "SHANNON."

368. THE CREEK UPRISING.

369. THIRD UNSUCCESSFUL INVASION OF CANADA.

370. WASHINGTON CAPTURED.

371. OPERATIONS ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

372. THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

373. TREATY OF PEACE. — Financial conditions; effect of war on America, on the world.

374. THE HARTFORD CONVENTION. — Purpose, action, result; downfall of Federalist party.

375. WAR WITH ALGIERS.

376. THE FINANCES.

377. INDIANA ADMITTED.

378. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Monroe and Tompkins; defeat of Federalists.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE UNITED STATES IN 1817

379. Population and Boundaries. — In the thirty years following the framing of the Constitution, great progress had been made. The population had increased from four million to nearly ten million. The western boundary was no longer the Mississippi, but the Rocky Mountain region, and even the Oregon country beyond was claimed by the United States. Yet our area was much smaller than now. Florida still belonged to Spain. Texas, though the United States held that it was a part of the Louisiana purchase, was claimed and occupied by Spain. All of New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, California, Utah, and portions of Wyoming, Colorado, Kansas, and Oklahoma were Spanish territory. The Spanish territory.

In 1817 the Union consisted of nineteen states and five territories. The states which had been added to the original thirteen were Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Louisiana, and Indiana. The five territories were Mississippi,¹ Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and Alabama.

380. Movement to the West. — Great numbers of emigrants were attracted to the fertile lands of the Mississippi valley. Singly or in families they left their homes and formed traveling parties on the great thoroughfares to the West. Men on foot, men on horseback, wagons and carts loaded with household goods, women and children trudging along by the side of overburdened wagons, herds of cattle, The tide of emigration.

¹ Mississippi was admitted before the year was over.

and droves of hogs, presented a scene that could be witnessed almost any day on the dusty highways.

Once over the mountains, the emigrant floated down rivers by means of a flat-bottom boat or barge. Selecting some favored spot, he built his log cabin and made it his home until later times brought better comforts. Towns sprang up quickly, and as quickly became cities. The "Far West," which was at Pittsburg in Washington's time, had moved in Monroe's time to St. Louis; yet the Indians still occupied a large part of the region about the Great Lakes and much of the extreme South.

The "Far
West."

Census of
1820.

North grows
strong.

381. The Seaboard States. — Meanwhile the population of the seaboard states had steadily increased. Though the migration to the West was made at the expense of these states, yet it was more than offset by the natural increase and by immigrants from almost every country of Europe. When the census was taken in 1820, it was shown that New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts were, in the order named, the most populous states, and that their combined population exceeded the whole number of persons in the United States when Washington was inaugurated. The North had become more populous than the South.

The
steamboat.

382. The Steamboat, the Turnpike, and the Stagecoach. — Though ten years had passed since Fulton made his first voyage up the Hudson in the *Clermont*, yet steam navigation was unknown except on rivers and near the coast. A steamboat had just made a voyage from New York to Norfolk—a feat that was considered marvelous and gave hope that steam might prove useful for ocean service.¹

¹ In 1819, two years after this period, the steamer *Savannah* made a voyage across the ocean from Savannah to Liverpool, England. Thence it proceeded to St. Petersburg, Russia. The little vessel, the first to cross

Even on the Great Lakes there was not a single vessel propelled by steam.

Much attention had been given to internal improvements. State governments and corporations had built roads and canals. In many parts of the country there were broad, level turnpikes and good bridges. Often a journey was made partly by steamer and partly by stage. One could go from Boston to New York in two days, and from New York to Charleston in about ten days. Neither coach nor steamboat carried freight. Corporations, similar to the express companies of our day, hauled merchandise for the public. For this purpose they used sloops on the rivers and along the coast, and wagons in the interior.

The
turnpike.

The
stagecoach.

383. **The Post-office.**—Post-offices had increased from seventy-five to thousands. Postage was still charged according to distance; the rate for a letter, written on a single sheet of paper, graded from six cents for distances of thirty miles or less to twenty-five cents for distances greater than four hundred miles. For every extra sheet the fee was charged again. As the letter was not inclosed in an envelope, but merely secured by sealing wax, the number of sheets could be easily counted by the postmaster.

The postal
service.



LETTER-CARRIER OF 1810.

the ocean by the use of steam, was regarded with great curiosity in Europe. It was some years before steamers made regular voyages across the Atlantic.

Postage stamps were not yet used. There was not a postal route west of the Mississippi, and it took almost a month for mail to go from Washington to New Orleans. Nor was the transportation of the mails altogether safe even in the older communities. On the route between Philadelphia and Baltimore robbers frequently "held up" the stagecoach and rifled the mail pouch.

The state
banks.

384. Money and Banks.—Gold and silver were too scarce to meet the demands of trade, so states chartered banks with power to issue notes. These notes passed as money. So many state banks were established that, from the three banks of which the country could boast when Washington became President, the number had increased to almost three hundred. Pennsylvania chartered forty-one under a single act.

Speculation.

It was an era of speculation. The opening of new lands and the starting of so many new enterprises seemed to affect almost all with a feverish desire for gain. There was such demand for money to be used in speculation that the state banks issued a great many more notes than they could possibly redeem in gold or silver. The more reckless banks became known as "wild-cat" banks.

Milder
penalties.

385. Prisons.—The prisons continued to be loathsome, disease-breeding places, but the work of prison reform had begun. Some of the states had adopted the penitentiary system. Punishment was less severe. The death penalty was inflicted only for such crimes as are to-day considered capital offenses. Public opinion was fast condemning the stocks, the whipping-post, cropping, and branding. Persons were rarely imprisoned for debt.

Progress in
manufactur-
ing.

386. Manufactures.—The manufacturing industry, which in Washington's time amounted to practically nothing, had become important. This progress was due partly

to the fact that the tariff on foreign goods served as a Cause. protection to our infant industries, partly to trade restrictions preceding the War of 1812, and partly to the war itself which had turned the attention of many rich men from commerce to manufactures.

Yet this great industry did not grow without opposition. There was still much prejudice against the factory system; statesmen could be found who asserted that America should "keep her workshops in Europe." It was argued that, with so much land needing settlement, people should not be crowded into unwholesome mills; that they should enjoy the open sky and broad fields rather than be subjected to the demoralizing influence of towns. Nevertheless, the manufacturers had grown so strong that they were beginning to demand of Congress the enactment of laws in their interest. (See note, page 277.)

Manufacturing in the household had not ceased. Many thousands of families still did their own spinning and weaving. Perhaps two thirds of the clothing, table and bed linen, blankets, quilts, soap, and candles used in the interior were made at home.

387. The Cotton Gin. Slavery and the Tariff. — All of the original states north of Mason and Dixon's line had passed laws which gave the slaves their freedom. The line between the free and slave states had moved westward along the Ohio. In 1805 Indiana Territory, then embracing the greater part of the old Northwest Territory, petitioned Congress to allow it to hold slaves, but Congress refused to change the ordinance of 1787 prohibiting African slavery in the region north of the Ohio. (See Sec. 296.) On the other hand, slavery was legalized in all the states south of the Ohio, in Louisiana, and in Missouri Territory.

Emancipation of slaves in the North.

Slavery legal in the South.

The cotton
gin.

Its influence
upon slavery.

Importation
of slaves.

Influence of
cotton upon
slavery.

Influence of
cotton upon
the tariff
question in
the South.

Education.

Perhaps no invention has had greater influence on the political history of America than Whitney's cotton gin. When it was made, in 1793, very little cotton was being produced. Up to that time slavery had not gained such a hold as to forbid the hope of many persons, both North and South, that it would soon pass away. But the rapid separation of the seed from the fiber, which the gin accomplished, made cotton so profitable that it soon became the chief product of the South.

The result was that, prior to the prohibition, in 1808, of the importation of slaves, great numbers were brought to the Southern plantations. The Southern people believed that they were necessary for the cultivation of cotton. Many of the cotton manufacturers shared in this belief, and hence the influence of a large class at the North was enlisted on the side of slavery.

Through cotton the South was brought into close commercial relations with Great Britain. Much of the product was exported to that kingdom, and the Southern people naturally opposed a high tariff—that is, a high tax laid on imported goods, which would thus increase their cost in this country.

388. Newspapers.—The newspapers of this period were an improvement upon the little sheets that told of the surrender of Cornwallis. There were, perhaps, more newspapers in America than in any other country. Not a few were dailies. The reading matter consisted generally of items of local interest, brief summaries of the proceedings of Congress, essays on public questions, and foreign news taken from European newspapers six weeks old.

389. The Schools.—The public school, as we know it, was not generally in existence. Free education was usually offered only to the poor, and many parents regarded it as

an invitation to place their children in the pauper class; hence, education of the poor had made little progress.

Parents who could afford to do so, sent their children to private schools or academies, many of which were well conducted. Colleges had been established in almost every state.

390. Life in the Cities.— According to the census of **Population.** 1820, New York city had one hundred and twenty-five thousand inhabitants. Philadelphia came next with a population of one hundred and twenty thousand. Baltimore had outstripped Boston, the former having about sixty-five thousand and the latter about forty-five thousand.

The condition of the cities had greatly improved since Washington's time. The streets were better paved and better lighted, and the buildings were more convenient. Though oil lamps could be seen now and then, yet the houses were commonly lighted with candles. Gas had not come into use. Wood was still used almost universally as fuel in the house, for the value of coal for this purpose was not fully appreciated. Social life had grown gayer and had cast aside the sedate amusements of colonial and revolutionary days. The quilting party and spinning match were still rural pastimes, though looked upon as old-fashioned in the cities, where balls and dances were numerous and well attended, and where the theater was now in high favor. **Domestic conditions,** **Amusements**

The change in dress had been great also. The three-cornered hat of the Revolution was no more. In its stead the man wore a high stiff hat. The coat which suited all occasions was very similar to the evening coat of the present time. Trousers reaching below the ankles had taken the place of knee breeches, and high boots had supplanted pointed shoes and buckles. **Dress.**

Women no longer followed the fashions of colonial dames. The lofty headdress and wide skirt and hoop had been discarded for the Grecian coil and the narrow empire gown. But the belles of that day were no less fond of brilliant colors and fine clothes than were their grandmothers. A writer of the period states that "French silks and Canton crapes are profusely worn even by the moderately gay, and female dress is sometimes as splendid and sometimes as ridiculous in New York as in London."

391. The American.—Men who had seen the country grow from a few feeble colonies to a republic respected by the world, were still alive. It was their reward in their declining years to see how well they had builded. The future seemed boundless in its possibilities. And the American had confidence in his country and in himself.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

379. POPULATION AND BOUNDARIES.

380. MOVEMENT TO THE WEST.—Reason; mode of emigration.

381. THE SEABOARD STATES.

382. CONVEYANCES.—The steamboat, stagecoaches, sloops.

383. THE POSTAL SYSTEM.

384. MONEY AND BANKS.

385. PRISONS.

386. MANUFACTURES.—Growth; protection of tariff; opposition to factory system.

387. SLAVERY AND THE TARIFF.—Effect of cotton gin on slavery; why did South and North hold different views on the tariff question?

388-389. NEWSPAPERS. SCHOOLS.

390. LIFE IN CITIES.—Compare with Washington's time.

391. POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES.

PART VI.—SECTIONAL DISSENSION

1817-1861

CHAPTER XXVIII

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE

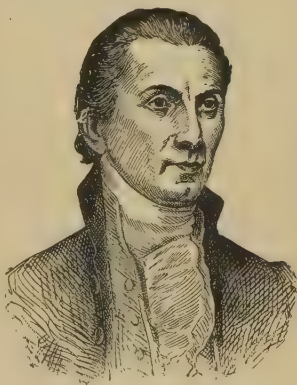
(FIFTH PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1817-1825)

392. **New States.** — Mississippi was admitted in 1817, Illinois in 1818, and Alabama in 1819, making the total number of states twenty-two. Mississippi and Alabama permitted slavery, while Illinois prohibited it.

393. **Financial Panic of 1818.**
Opposition to the National Bank.

— Many causes, among which speculation was greatest, brought on a panic in 1818 which lasted through 1820. Everywhere great distress was felt. Business failures followed rapidly, one upon another, and many banks were ruined.

In the minds of many people



Twenty-two
states.

Speculation

JAMES MONROE.

JAMES MONROE was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, April 28, 1758; died at New York, July 4, 1831. He served in the Revolution, and later held many positions of honor and trust under the government of the United States. He was one of the negotiators of the Louisiana purchase. Monroe was distinguished for his virtues more than for his talents. His long public service was marked by uprightness of character and devotion to duty.

The bank
blamed.

the chief blame for the panic rested upon the national bank, whose pressure upon the state banks for money borrowed from it caused the state banks to press, in turn, the people to whom they had made loans. With the return of better times, feeling against the bank diminished.

394. The First Seminole or Florida War.—Florida belonged to Spain. A large class of the population was a mixture of Seminole Indians, Creeks who had gone among them after the battle of Horseshoe Bend, and runaway slaves. These people formed bands that frequently ravaged the southern borders of Georgia and Alabama. Many collisions occurred between the white settlers and their treacherous foes, but the marauders usually succeeded in retiring into Florida after doing their work of robbery and death.

Andrew
Jackson in
Florida, 1818.

In 1818 the government ordered General Andrew Jackson to move against the outlaws. With a force of regulars and militia he followed them into Florida, but the red men and their black allies escaped by hiding in swamps. Jackson, believing that the Spaniards were in league with the Indians, seized the Spanish towns of St. Marks and Pensacola; and, moreover, caused to be executed two subjects of Great Britain, who had been convicted by court martial of having aided the Indians.

395. Fixing Boundaries; Acquisition of Florida.—It was feared that General Jackson's conduct would involve the country in war with Great Britain and Spain, and efforts were made in Congress to censure him. The general defended his course on the ground that the public safety demanded it, and Congress sustained him. Fortunately war did not follow. On the contrary, treaties of great importance were soon made with Great Britain and Spain.

Boundaries.

By the treaty made with Great Britain in 1818, the

boundary between the territory of the United States west of the Mississippi (the Louisiana purchase) and the British possessions in Canada, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains, was to be the 49th parallel of latitude. Both the United States and Great Britain claimed the Oregon country, and decision as to the boundary west of the mountains was postponed. Meantime, people of both nations might occupy the disputed territory for a period of ten years.

The Oregon country.

By the treaty made with Spain in 1819, Florida was sold to the United States. The price paid to Spain was five million dollars. By the terms of this treaty the boundary between the United States and the Spanish provinces west of the Mississippi was agreed upon, and Spain's claim to the Oregon country was surrendered to the United States. In return, the United States gave up its claim to Texas.

Purchase of Florida, 1819

396. The Question of Slavery in Missouri Territory. — The election of Monroe was followed by a time so free from political strife that it has been called the "era of good feeling." Yet this period of tranquillity was soon broken by the question whether Missouri Territory should become a state with or without slavery.

The era of good feeling

Slavery had been accepted by all America early in the colonial period. Yet from the very first it was deplored by leading colonists, and as time passed, protest upon protest against the system went to the king, especially from the Southern colonies where slaves were more numerous. But these protests were vain, for the king himself, as well as his subjects in England, were growing rich from the slave trade. (See Sec. 205.)

Slavery.

Shipowners of the North also engaged extensively in the traffic. Down to the very time when the importation of

slaves was prohibited, they continued to bring negroes from Africa to the South. Great Britain and the North "each had a hand in the establishing of negro slavery."¹

A political
movement.

Not ethical.

The controversy about Missouri was due to the struggle between the sections for control of the general government. The movement of the abolitionists against the slavery system had not begun. In the making of new states, free-labor and slaveholding states had been admitted almost alternately; so that, of the twenty-two states composing the Union, eleven now had free-labor and eleven permitted slavery. Northerners did not want the vast Louisiana purchase opened to slavery, for the formation of new slaveholding states would give the South control of the Senate. Southerners desired to carry their slaves with them when they sought homes in new lands and wished to preserve the strength of their section in the Union.

Differences
between the
sections.

Different
constructions
of the
Constitution.

Did
Congress
have con-
stitutional
power to re-
strict slavery?

It was natural that the interests of the North and South should conflict. What suited one section did not suit the other, and therefore each desired to have control of the government. The two sections differed also in their interpretation of the principles of our government. The North generally believed in a liberal construction of the Constitution, while the South generally clung to the doctrine that the Federal government had only such powers as are expressly granted in the Constitution. This difference of opinion came out very strongly in the controversy over Missouri, the North asserting, and the South denying, that Congress had power to restrict slavery in the public domain.

¹ Rhodes's "History of the United States," Vol. I, p. 379. In order to avoid the loss that would ensue from the emancipation laws of their states, many Northern slaveholders sold their slaves to the South. See Stephens's "War between the States," Vol. II, p. 102, etc.



Slaves were numerous in Missouri, and the people of that territory wished to continue holding them when Missouri should become a state. When Missouri applied for admission into the Union, in 1819, the question of slavery caused angry debate in Congress and a bitter feeling throughout the whole country. Many feared the Union would crumble to pieces.

Bitterness
between the
sections.

Maine
applies for
admission.

While excitement was at its height, Maine, with the consent of Massachusetts, of which it had previously formed a part, applied for admission as a separate state. As Maine would be a free-labor state, the Southerners would not allow it to be admitted unless, to preserve the balance, Missouri were admitted with slavery. So the "Missouri Compromise," proposed by Senator Jesse B. Thomas of Illinois, was agreed upon (1820). The compromise allowed Missouri to come in as a state with slaves, but prohibited slavery elsewhere in the Louisiana purchase north of latitude 36' 30," which is the southern boundary of Missouri.¹ The "Missouri Compromise," so famous in our history, stood for many years, though, like most compromises, it gave satisfaction to neither side.

The
Missouri
Compromise,
1820.

The
Missouri
Compromise
line.

Arkansas
Territory,
1819.

The part of the Louisiana purchase lying between Louisiana and Missouri had already been organized as Arkansas Territory.

397. Monroe Reëlected. — In 1820 Monroe and Tompkins were reëlected, practically without opposition.

398. The Monroe Doctrine. — Mexico and some of the

¹ Neither Maine nor Missouri was admitted under the Compromise Act. Maine, which had already adopted a constitution, was admitted under a separate act in 1820. When Missouri adopted a constitution, some of its provisions regarding the negro were objected to by the North, and sectional strife broke out afresh in Congress. Then it was that Henry Clay of Kentucky secured a second compromise which admitted Missouri under a new act in 1821.

provinces of South America had revolted against the authority of Spain and set up governments of their own. The United States sympathized with them in their struggle for liberty, and in 1822 recognized their independence. The rulers of continental Europe were alarmed at the growth of republicanism in both the Old World and the New, and it was believed in the United States that they would help Spain recover her late American provinces.

The South American provinces become republics.

European monarchs displeased.

Russia also planned to acquire more American territory. Possessed already of what is now known as Alaska, the Czar laid claim to the Oregon country and even planted a colony on the California coast.

Russia wants more of America.

American statesmanship had always regarded the extension of European power on the Western continent as dangerous to the safety and contrary to the interests of the United States. Conforming to this American view, Monroe, in 1823, gave notice to the world in a message to Congress that thenceforth the American continents would not be open to colonization by any European power. In the same message the President further declared that the United States would not interfere in the internal affairs of any European state, and that no European state might interfere in the internal affairs of any American government. Such was the origin of the "Monroe Doctrine."

The United States objects to colonization in America by European powers.

Its effect was immediate. Russia abandoned its purpose of gaining American territory, and never again did Spain get a foothold on continental America. The principles of the "Monroe Doctrine" have become a part of the policy of the United States.

399. Lafayette's Visit. — Marquis de Lafayette, the French nobleman who served so gallantly in Washington's army, came to America to see once more the land he had aided in liberating. He was the country's guest and visited

The country's guest 1824-1825.

every state. Cities, villages, and hamlets which had the honor of receiving him showered upon the hero warm greetings and enthusiastic attentions.

Better com-
munication.

400. Internal Improvements. — As the West became more and more populous, the desire had grown for better com-

The question
of internal
improve-
ments.



MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE.

(From a portrait about 1825.)

The National
Road.

munication between the Atlantic states and the states beyond the Alleghanies. States and private corporations did much in building turnpikes and bridges, yet the question naturally arose whether the general government should aid in their construction. By the time of Monroe this question had become one of the leading political issues.

The most noteworthy instance of Federal aid for internal improvements was in the construction of the Cumberland or National Road from Cumberland on the Potomac to Wheeling on the Ohio. This road was later extended by Congress to Zanesville, Ohio, and farther westward by states. With the coming of railroads, internal improvements by the general government ceased to be an issue.

The tariff
adds to
sectional
differences.

401. Tariff of 1824 — First Protective Tariff. — The first protective tariff—that is, a tax placed upon foreign goods for the avowed purpose of protecting American industries—was laid by Congress in 1824. Up to this time all tariffs had been for revenue only. The tariff of 1824 was laid especially to protect manufactured goods and such mate-

rials as iron, lead, wool, and hemp. This benefited the Middle states and the West, which were consequently in favor of it. New England, whose ships sailed every sea, and the South, whose crops were sold in foreign lands, opposed it; in South Carolina there was a feeling in favor of nullifying the law.¹



ROUTE OF THE NATIONAL ROAD.

402. Presidential Election.—At the election in 1824 there were four candidates for the Presidency. All were Republicans (Democrats). When the electoral vote was counted it was found that Andrew Jackson had received 99 votes; John Quincy Adams, 84; William H. Crawford, 41; and Henry Clay, 37. Though Jackson led the others, he had not received a majority of the votes cast; it therefore became the duty of the House of Representatives to

¹ The argument of the protectionists was that protection is proper because it develops home resources, builds up home industries, and creates a home market; by diversifying industry it prevents the people from remaining wholly agricultural; it enriches the country in general and makes it truly independent of the world. The anti-protectionists argued that the laying of taxes for the benefit of certain industries is wrong, because by raising the prices of favored articles it takes money from the pockets of one set of people and puts it into those of another; it creates monopolies, and by shutting out foreign trade it injures the men engaged in commerce and shipping, and prostrates the agriculturists who depend upon the foreign market both for sale of their products and the purchase of their supplies; it is unconstitutional, since the power to tax imports, given to Congress by the Constitution, is for the sole purpose of raising revenues.

Adams and
Calhoun.

choose a President, and John Quincy Adams was elected. John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, having received a majority of the electoral votes cast for the Vice Presidency, succeeded to that office.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 392. NEW STATES.
- 393. FINANCIAL PANIC OF 1818. — Opposition to national bank.
- 394. THE FIRST FLORIDA WAR. — The Seminoles.
- 395. FIXING BOUNDARIES. — Treaties with Great Britain and Spain; Florida purchase.
- 396. THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE. — The question of slavery: opposition between North and South; terms of the compromise.
- 397. MONROE REELECTED.
- 398. THE MONROE DOCTRINE. — Occasion; purpose; effect.
- 399. LAFAYETTE'S VISIT.
- 400. INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. — The National Road.
- 401. FIRST PROTECTIVE TARIFF.
- 402. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Adams and Calhoun.

CHAPTER XXIX

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

(SIXTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1825-1829)

403. Georgia and the Creek Indians. — In 1802 Georgia relinquished to the United States her claim to territory now in Alabama and Mississippi. In return, the United States agreed to settle with the Indians for their lands within the present limits of Georgia as soon as it could be done on peaceable and reasonable terms, and turn the lands over to Georgia. In 1825 a treaty was made at Indian Springs, Georgia, between commissioners of the United States and the chiefs of the Lower Creeks, as the branch of the Creek nation living in Georgia was called. This treaty gave to Georgia all of the Creek lands within the limits of the state; in return the Creeks were to be given lands west of the Mississippi.

The Upper Creeks, living in



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, son of John Adams the second President, was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, July 11, 1767; died at Washington, District of Columbia, February 23, 1848. He was graduated from Harvard. No President enjoyed a wider diplomatic experience; he had filled with distinction the positions of Minister to the Netherlands, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain, and had served as one of the commissioners for the treaty ending the War of 1812. He had also been United States Senator, and Secretary of State under Monroe. Nor did his public service end with his Presidential term, for shortly afterward he was elected to the House of Representatives, and he continued a member of that body until his death. Adams was one of the most accomplished scholars that have graced American public life. For a short time he was a professor at Harvard.

Georgia and
the Creeks.

Treaty with
the Lower
Creeks.

The Upper
Creeks
oppose.

Alabama, felt wronged by the treaty, and killed some of the chiefs who had signed it. In 1826 the United States, not regarding the treaty as made by a sufficient number of chiefs, agreed with the Indians upon a second treaty, by which the Creeks retained some of their lands in Georgia.

Trouble
between
Georgia and
the general
government.

The Georgia authorities refused to recognize the second treaty, and set to work to survey all the Creek lands in the state for the purpose of selling them to white settlers. President Adams ordered the Georgia authorities to stop the sur-



MAP OF THE ERIE CANAL.

vey, and threatened to use force to drive off the surveyors. George M. Troup, then governor of Georgia, responded to the threat by notifying the President that if troops were sent into the state, they would be met by a military force and treated as invaders.

The general
government
ends the
trouble by
making
another
treaty with
the Creeks.

To give a peaceful end to the matter, the Federal government made a third treaty with the Creeks, which, like the first, gave Georgia all Creek lands within the limits of the state. Shortly afterward the Creeks moved west of the Mississippi.





404. The Erie Canal. — The Erie Canal, connecting the waters of the Great Lakes with the Atlantic, was completed in 1825. The canal passed from Lake Erie to the Hudson at a point near Albany, in the state of New York, eight years of work. The success of this great work was due to the untiring efforts of Governor DeWitt Clinton.

Erie Canal
completed,
1825.

The canal brought New York into closer contact with the West, and its benefits were immediately felt. The cheapening of freight rates made a marvelous increase in the amount of products exchanged between the East and the West. The canal also became a popular route for the emigrant, as it was an easier way than the overland route of reaching the West.

Effect upon
the country

405. Railroads. — The first railroad in America was built in 1809, and extended only a short distance from a quarry to the Delaware River.¹ The cars were drawn by horses. One or two other short railroads, using horse power or sails, followed, but it was not until 1829 that a locomotive was used in America. It was employed on a short road at Honesdale, Pennsylvania. This locomotive, however, had been built in England.

The first American built locomotive, the "Tom Thumb," was run in 1830 on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, but it was soon abandoned, as it was too small for service. The first American built locomotive to be used with practical results was "The Best Friend," which was employed the same year on the South Carolina railroad. This road,

First
American
locomotive
1830.

¹ McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," Vol. V. p. 142.

when completed in 1833 from Charleston to Hamburg, South Carolina, a distance of 136 miles, was the longest in the world.

406. The Tariff of 1828.

"Tariff of Abominations." —

In 1828 Congress passed a protective tariff, called by many the "Tariff of Abomi-

nations," which raised the duties higher than the tariff of 1824 had done. By this time the manufacturing industry in New England had outgrown the commercial interests, and that section supported the high tariff. The South alone opposed it; so that the tariff question became a sectional issue.

The tariff a sectional issue.

The South in regard to the tariff

The South was already wrought up by the tariff of 1824, and now the legislatures of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Alabama declared protection unconstitutional. Meetings, grand juries, and commercial legislatures in protesting. The doctrine was vigorously proclaimed. Some thought secession, the proper remedy.

most intense in South Carolina, where prominent leaders advised an appeal to arms. Moderate counsels prevailed, however, and the legislature, while declaring that nullification was the proper method of resistance, decided to defer action until it was known whether Congress would give relief by reducing the tariff.

407. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1828 John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson were the candidates. Jackson was elected by a large majority. Both candidates were Republicans. Adams favored a liberal construction of the Constitution, heartily approving of internal improvements and other measures opposed by the

Jackson and Calhoun.

strict constructionists, with whom Jackson was more in sympathy.

The supporters of Jackson were assuming the name of Democrats, a name first given the Republicans in derision. The Adams men called themselves National Republicans.

The question of measures was outweighed by the personality of the candidates. Adams had been reared in affluence; Jackson was born in humble circumstances. Adams was of cold manner, and was not popular; Jackson was what is called to-day "a man of the people." Jackson was a military hero; he was looked upon as a victim of injustice in failing to attain the Presidency four years previously, when he had received the largest electoral vote. His election now was a peaceful revolution, just as was the case in the first election of Jefferson. The two Adamses, father and son, suffered from the popular opinion that they were not in sympathy with the people, an impression that did both of these eminent patriots great injustice. John C. Calhoun was reëlected Vice President.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

403. GEORGIA AND THE CREEKS. — Three treaties.

404. THE ERIE CANAL. — Importance.

405. RAILROADS.

406. THE TARIFF OF 1828. — The "Tariff of Abominations"; opposition.

407. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Democrats and National Republicans.
Jackson and Calhoun.

CHAPTER XXX

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON

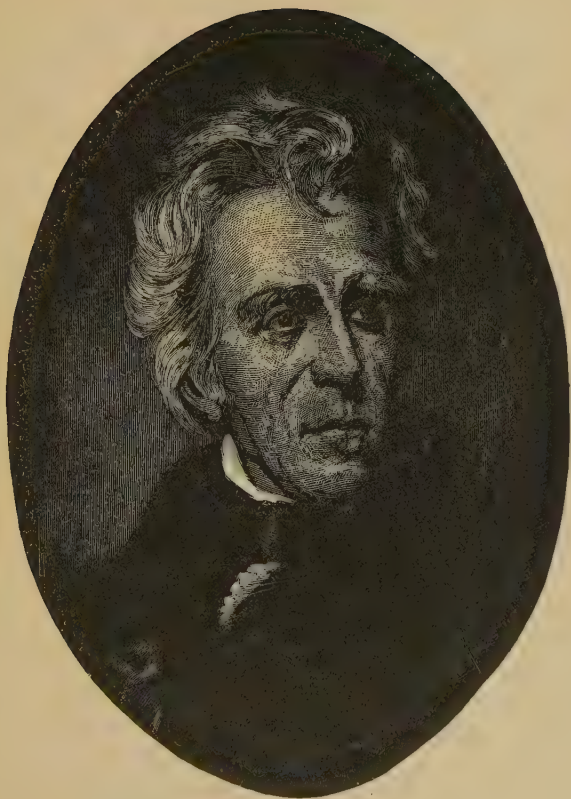
(SEVENTH PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1829-1837)

The office-
seekers.

Dismissal
of officials.

408. The Scramble for Office.—The election of Andrew Jackson,¹ a so-called “self-made man,” was regarded as a victory of the plain people. Jackson’s supporters now crowded into Washington and began a scramble for office. Such a thing had never occurred before. With the exception of a few changes made by Jefferson to give both political parties a share in the administration of the government, the incoming of a President had not been followed by the dismissal of efficient office-holders merely to make places for political supporters. Now the cry was, “To the victors belong the spoils.” Jackson removed more men from office than all of his predecessors had done.

¹ ANDREW JACKSON was born in the Waxhaw Settlement, on the border line between North and South Carolina, March 15, 1767; died at his home, the Hermitage, near Nashville, Tennessee, June 8, 1845. Though a mere lad, he served in the American army during the closing years of the Revolution. He was reared in poverty, and worked in the saddlery business before he was admitted to the bar. When a young man he moved to Tennessee. His victory at New Orleans and his campaigns against the Indians have been told. Before his election to the Presidency he had some experience in the civil service. He represented Tennessee in each house of Congress, and was governor of Florida Territory. Jackson’s character stands out boldly in American history. Of impulsive nature, he acted quickly; of high temper, he made many enemies, to whom he was unforgiving, while to his friends he was ever loyal; of strong will, he, more than any other President, forced his views upon Congress. Through all, his rugged honesty was never questioned.



ANDREW JACKSON.

409. The Abolitionists. — The year 1831 saw the birth of the abolition movement. William Lloyd Garrison began in Boston the publication of the *Liberator*, a paper having for its object the emancipation of slaves. There had previously been men and societies in the North, especially among the Quakers, who earnestly strove for abolition by voluntary and legal means, but they were few, and their efforts had not been encouraged.

The first
abolitionists

Congress had declared in 1790 (see Sec. 325) that it could not abolish slavery in the states. The commercial interests of the North, and particularly the manufacturers of goods from cotton produced by slave labor, had been content for years to let the slavery question rest; now Garrison's paper started a movement of violent nature.

The new abolitionists, though few, were extreme. They took the ground that as slavery was wrong it should be abolished without paying the slave owner for the loss of his property, regardless of the protection given it by the Constitution. In one of their first public declarations (1836) they cried: "War has broken out between the South and the North, not easily to be terminated. The sword now drawn will not be sheathed until victory, entire victory, is ours or theirs."¹ They wanted the Union dissolved, if the Union meant the continuance of slavery. Garrison pronounced the Constitution "a covenant with death and an agreement with hell," "the most bloody and heaven-daring compact ever contrived," and "in the nature of things, and according to the law of God, null and void from the beginning."

Extreme
views.

Garrison
on the
Constitution

The Southern people might well feel alarm concerning the effect of such sentiments upon the slaves. Only recently slaves had risen in insurrection in Virginia, under the lead of a negro named Nat Turner, and murdered more

Alarm in the
South, 1831.

¹ Appendix to *Congressional Globe*, 24th Congress, Session I, p. 616.

than sixty white persons. Slave owners, always claiming the protection guaranteed them by the Constitution, now demanded the suppression of the abolitionists and their publications.

Even in the North the abolitionists found as yet but little encouragement. The business man wanting Southern trade, and the politician wanting Southern votes, frowned upon any movement unfriendly to Southern institutions. The church held aloof.

The condition of the negro at the North.

Nor was there in the North much real sympathy for the negro except as a race of slaves. In no Northern state did the black man enjoy full citizenship. In some states he could not vote, in others he could not appear as a witness except in cases to which negroes were parties, in others he could not bear arms, and in still others he was to be publicly flogged if caught out at night after nine o'clock. Education was often denied him, and all employments, except the most menial, were practically closed to him.

Abolitionists discountenanced at the North.

Constant agitation by the abolitionists.

When the abolitionists first pushed their cause, they met with antagonism in the North. They were sometimes mobbed; Garrison himself received rough treatment at the hands of a lawless crowd in Boston. But they persevered and steadily grew in numbers and influence. Their constant agitation aroused the opposition of the North to slavery. Though their methods were extreme, the motives of the abolitionists were honest.

The South united.

The freeing of slaves was not uncommon in the South, and societies organized in that section to promote it were active. But free negroes had already given trouble, and the Southerners thought it dangerous to increase their number while the abolitionists were exciting them. The strong assaults of the abolitionists upon the South drew the Southern people closer together in defense of slavery

and made a peaceful solution of the slavery question practically impossible.

410. States' Rights again Asserted. Georgia. Maine. — States' rights.

Early in Jackson's term the assertion of states' rights was made by two extreme ends of the Union. Georgia again became involved in trouble with the Indians within its borders, this time with the Cherokees. These Indians had made praiseworthy advancement toward civilization and had set up a government of their own, asserting that, under their treaty with the United States, Georgia had no right to govern them. Georgia could not be expected to allow another government within its borders, and relying upon the clause of the Federal Constitution forbidding the erection of a new state within another state, undertook to extend its laws over the Indian country. The Cherokees appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States and that tribunal sustained their claim, but Georgia continued its acts regardless of the decision of the court. Georgia.

President Jackson, who sympathized with the Georgians, prevailed upon the Cherokees to surrender their lands to Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and accept in payment five million dollars and lands west of the Mississippi.

The boundary between Maine and Canada was for years a matter of dispute. The United States and Great Britain agreed to leave its settlement to the king of the Netherlands. In 1831 he awarded to Canada a strip of territory claimed by Maine. No sooner was the award made known, than Maine threatened to nullify it should the Federal government accept it, and Massachusetts, having reserved an interest in the wild lands of Maine, announced that she would coöperate with her sister state. The United States refused to abide by the award. (See Sec. 424.) Maine.

Jackson and
Van Buren.

411. Presidential Election.—At the election of 1832 Jackson was reëlected President, and Martin Van Buren of New York was elected Vice President. Their supporters no longer called themselves Republicans, but Democrats.

The other wing of the old Republican party, still calling itself National Republican, had supported Henry Clay of Kentucky, for President. In this campaign candidates were for the first time nominated by national conventions. Previously they had been nominated by a congressional caucus or by state legislatures.

412. Jackson's Fight on the National Bank.—The chief issue in the election of 1832 had been the national bank, against which Jackson's opposition was always great. The charter granted in 1816 would expire in 1836, and Jackson strove to prevent a renewal of it. The friends of the bank, however, had a majority in Congress, and in 1832 secured the passage of a bill granting it a new charter. The President vetoed the bill.

Many people regarded the bank as an institution controlling the finances of the country for the benefit of the rich. They feared that it might become powerful enough to control the government. There were also charges of corruption.

Jackson's
"removal of
the deposits."

When Jackson's position was put before the people in the presidential election, it was sustained by an overwhelming vote. Jackson's next act was to forbid the placing of government funds in the national bank, instead, he employed state banks, selected for the purpose, which soon became known as Jackson's "pet banks."

413. Nullification in South Carolina.—Meanwhile, excitement in the South over the tariff law had not subsided. The belief that the state should nullify it, steadily took

deeper root in South Carolina. The right of nullification had already, in 1830, been the subject of a great debate in the United States Senate between Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina, in favor, and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, in opposition.

Hayne and Webster.

South Carolina had declared, in 1828, the right of nullification, but had decided to wait to see whether Congress would give relief by reducing the tariff. (See Sec. 406.) The Tariff Act passed by Congress in 1832 reduced the rate in some particulars, but it was still a tariff higher than was necessary for revenue. Thereupon, the state of South Carolina, in convention assembled the same year, declared by solemn ordinance that protective tariffs "are null, void, and no law, nor binding upon this state, its officers or citizens," and forbade the collection of the tariff duties within the state after February 1, 1833. The ordinance also declared that if the United States used force, South Carolina would consider itself separated from the Union, and would organize an independent government. The state was agitated from one end to the other. Volunteers strengthened the militia for defense.

South Carolina nullifies, 1832.

The Union in peril.

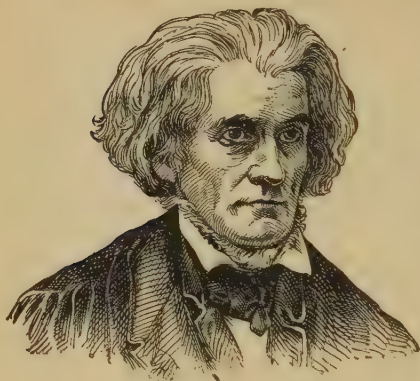
Jackson was determined that the tariff law should be enforced in the state. He issued a proclamation appealing to the people of South Carolina to desist from their course, and finding that it had no effect, he asked Congress for power to use the army of the United States to sustain the law.

Jackson's firmness.

A bill for the purpose, known as the "Force Bill," was accordingly introduced into Congress in 1833. This furnished occasion for another great debate in the Senate on the question of states' rights under the Constitution. The debaters were Daniel Webster and John C. Calhoun, the Southerner having resigned the Vice Presidency to repre-

Webster and Calhoun.

sent his state on the floor of the Senate. Jackson, in anticipation of the passage of the Force Bill, had already



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN was born in Abbeville District, South Carolina, March 18, 1782; died at Washington, March 31, 1850. He was a member of Congress and Senator from South Carolina, serving in the Senate, in all, sixteen years; he was also Secretary of War under Monroe; Vice President, and Secretary of State under Tyler. Calhoun was one of the ablest of Southern leaders. He was the champion of states' rights, defending the doctrine with all the force of his logical mind. Southerners felt for him an admiration that was almost worship. This admiration was not unworthily placed, for he combined a lofty intellect with an irreproachable character.

prepared to send troops to South Carolina, and the country stood aghast at the prospect of civil war.

In this emergency, Henry Clay poured oil on the troubled waters by coming forward with a compromise tariff bill which Congress passed. The bill provided that the tariff should be reduced gradually so that by the end of ten years it would provide only for the expenses of the government. At the same time, however, the Force Bill was enacted in order that

the authority of the government might be sustained. Clay's compromise removed the cause of the trouble, and South Carolina rescinded its nullification ordinance.¹

414. Admission of Arkansas and Michigan. — Arkansas, a part of the Louisiana purchase, was admitted in 1836,

¹ In one form or another the doctrine of nullification had been proclaimed by more than half the states then in the Union — by Georgia, Virginia, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Ohio, New York, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Maine.

Clay's
compromise
bill.

as the twenty-fifth state. Michigan, formed from the Northwest Territory, and the twenty-sixth state, was admitted in 1837. The former was a slaveholding state and the latter a free-labor state.

Twenty-six
states, 1837

415. The Republic of Texas. — In 1820 Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, obtained from the Spanish government in Mexico a grant of land in Texas upon which to found a colony of Americans. He died soon after, but his son, Stephen F. Austin, took up his father's unfinished work. Meanwhile, Mexico, of which Texas formed a part, threw off the Spanish yoke, and the younger Austin secured a renewal of his grant from the Mexican government. Grants to other American colonies were secured, and in a few years there were more than twenty thousand Americans in Texas. Most of the emigrants went from the South and Southwest and carried their slaves with them.

Mexico
revolts and
becomes a
republic.

Americans
in Texas.

The Mexican authorities, jealous of the growing strength of the Americans, forbade further immigration, and in other ways so oppressed the colonies that in 1833 the Texans rose in revolution. Volunteers from the states aided them, and in 1835 the Mexicans were defeated in battles at Gonzales and Goliad. In 1836 Santa Anna, President of Mexico, entered Texas with a large army. With overwhelming numbers he fell upon the Alamo, an old Spanish mission near San Antonio, used by the revolutionists as a fort. Every man of the small garrison fell in its defense. A few days later Santa Anna, at Goliad, put to death three hundred Texans who had surrendered on condition that their lives should be spared.

Texas re-
volts against
Mexico.

The Alamo,
March 6,
1836.

Goliad,
March 27.

"Remember the Alamo! Remember Goliad!" became the battle cry of the Texans. Inspired by the martyrdom of their countrymen, they completely routed the

San Jacinto,
April 21.

Mexican army at San Jacinto. The Texans were commanded in this battle by General Sam Houston, a native of Virginia and a former governor of Tennessee. Texas had

Texas a
republic.



SAMUEL HOUSTON.

already issued a declaration of independence and elected David G. Burnet president of the republic. Afterward Houston was elected to succeed him. The independence of Texas was recognized by the United States in 1837, and shortly afterward by Great Britain, France, and Belgium.

Annexation
considered.

The Texans were largely our own people. This fact, together with the popular idea of the times that the United States should extend its territory, caused immediate agitation for the annexation of Texas to the United States. The fear that, unless it were annexed, Great Britain or France would gain control of the new republic, added strength to the movement. On the other hand, there was opposition in the North because Texas was a slaveholding country. It was also objected that annexation would probably involve the United States in war with Mexico.

Van Buren
and Johnson.

416. Presidential Election. — In 1836 Martin Van Buren of New York was elected President by the Democrats. Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky was made Vice President. General William Henry Harrison was the unsuccessful candidate of the Whigs,¹ as the National Republicans were now called.

¹ The Whigs advocated internal improvements, protective tariffs, and a national bank.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 408. THE "SPOILS" SYSTEM.
- 409. THE ABOLITIONISTS. — Garrison and the *Liberator*; abolitionist principles; Tyler's insurrection; North and South opposed.
- 410. STATES' RIGHTS. — Georgia and the Cherokees; the Maine boundary.
- 411. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Jackson and Van Buren.
- 412. JACKSON AND THE NATIONAL BANK.
- 413. NULLIFICATION IN SOUTH CAROLINA. — The tariff law, South Carolina nullifies it; the Force Bill; Clay's compromise.
- 414. ARKANSAS AND MICHIGAN ADMITTED.
- 415. TEXAS. — Settlement; revolution; Mexicans defeated; Texas independent; talk of annexation.
- 416. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Van Buren and Johnson.

CHAPTER XXXI

ADMINISTRATION OF MARTIN VAN BUREN

(EIGHTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1837-1841)



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

MARTIN VAN BUREN was born at Kinderhook, New York, December 5, 1782; died there July 24, 1862. He served as United States Senator, Governor of New York, Secretary of State under Jackson, Minister to Great Britain, and Vice President. In 1848 he was the unsuccessful candidate of the Free-soil (Antislavery) party for President. Van Buren was not a great statesman, but in the management of men for political purposes he has had but few equals.

Paper money
is nothing but
a promise to
pay.

The country was filled with bank notes far beyond the means of the banks to redeem. The abundance of cheap money was mistaken for prosperity, and people rushed

417. The Panic of 1837.

— It fell to the lot of Van Buren's administration to face a great panic brought over from preceding years. When the national bank came to an end, in 1836, there was nothing to take its place in furnishing the country with a sound currency. The state banks were not under the control of the Federal government, and most of them were conducted with lax methods and few safeguards. The policy of placing the government funds in state banks had caused hundreds of such banks to be established.

into speculation. Railroads, canals, factories, all kinds of enterprises were wildly projected. In nothing was speculation greater than in public lands, which, when purchased, were divided and sold again for city lots, factory sites, railroad stations, or farms that were to be brought close to a market through the locomotive or canal. The trading was done through paper money loaned by the banks.

Speculation.

Two events occurring near the close of Jackson's administration had hastened the crash sure to follow such wild speculations: (1) President Jackson, through his famous "specie circular," had refused to receive the paper money issued by state banks in payment for public lands. (2) The government having become clear of debt, Congress had devised the plan of loaning to the states the surplus funds, amounting to nearly forty million dollars. The loan was to be made in four installments during the year 1837. These funds had been placed in state banks and by them loaned out. A great pressure was thus made upon the banks for specie, for the people demanded it for their land transactions and the government demanded it to loan to the states. The run upon the banks was more than could be withstood and every bank in the country suspended specie payment.¹

Jackson's
"specie
circular."

The surplus
funds loaned
to the states.

Run upon
the banks.

The business of the whole country was affected disastrously. Banks could no longer extend credit and people could not pay their debts. Enterprises which had been begun came to a sudden end, and laborers were thrown out of employment. Even the government could not meet its obligations, for the remainder of its funds deposited

A disastrous
panic.

¹ The states received three installments of the loan before the collapse came. They wasted the money in unwise enterprises. It has never been returned to the general government.

An extra session of Congress.

with the banks, nearly ten million dollars, was lost. Van Buren called an extra session of Congress to remedy this state of affairs. All that Congress would do was to provide for the current expenses of the government by issuing ten million dollars in treasury notes.

Finally, in 1840, Van Buren persuaded Congress to establish an "independent treasury," or, as we know it to-day, a "sub-treasury." This system places the funds in government vaults in charge of heavily bonded officials. The distress in business continued until the end of Van Buren's term.

Growth of the abolition movement.

418. Agitation by the Abolitionists.—Hard times did not stop the abolitionists. They had increased in numbers and in political influence throughout the North, and were often able to turn the scales in closely contested elections. They presented to Congress petition after petition against slavery—so many, in fact, that Congress felt it wise to adopt a rule that no more such petitions would be received. But the abolitionists continued to present them through ex-President John Quincy Adams, at that time a member of the House.

J. Q. Adams.

Congress again declares it has no right to abolish slavery.

The petitions asked that slavery be abolished in the District of Columbia and the Territories, that new states be denied admission unless without slavery, and that the slave trade between the states be prohibited. In the hope of restoring quiet, Congress, in 1838, declared that it had no right to do these things, and in strong terms condemned further agitation of them.

The Seminoles.

419. Second Florida War.—Some of the Seminole Indians in Florida had made a treaty agreeing to move west of the Mississippi, but others repudiated it. The attempt of the government to move the unwilling Seminoles provoked a bloody war, which lasted from 1835 to 1842, when

the Indians submitted and were transported beyond the Mississippi. The noted chief Osceola led the Indians in their fights until his capture. The war cost thousands of lives and over twenty millions of dollars. It was the last struggle that the Indians east of the Mississippi made for the homes of their ancestors. Osceola.

420. Presidential Election. — The presidential campaign of 1840 was more exciting than any that had previously occurred. The Democrats renominated Van Buren and Johnson. The Whig candidates were William Henry Harrison of Ohio and John Tyler of Virginia. The canvass was known as the "Log Cabin and Hard Cider" campaign, because a Democratic newspaper, referring to the simplicity of Harrison's border life, suggested that he would prefer a log cabin and a barrel of cider to the Presidency. The Whigs turned the sneer to advantage. The log cabin, the cider barrel, and the coonskin became the symbols of the Whigs, and "reform" their cry to victory. They described Van Buren as an aristocrat who had caused the panic of 1837 while growing rich himself. "Tippecanoe and Tyler too."

The appeal was irresistible. The people, burdened by financial distress, turned to the Whig promises of reform and swept their candidates into office by a large majority. The campaign is also noteworthy from the fact that the abolitionists had for the first time presented candidates.

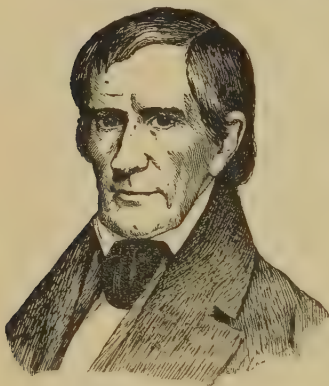
TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 417. THE PANIC OF 1837.** — Causes : Cheap currency, speculation; occasion : "specie circular," government loan; effect : sub-treasury established.
- 418. ABOLITIONIST AGITATION.**
- 419. SECOND FLORIDA WAR.**
- 420. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.** — Exciting campaign ; Harrison and Tyler.

CHAPTER XXXII

ADMINISTRATIONS OF HARRISON AND TYLER

(NINTH AND TENTH PRESIDENTS, ONE TERM, 1841-1845)



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON was born at Berkeley, Virginia, February 9, 1773; died at Washington, April 4, 1841. He gained distinction as a general in Indian conflicts and in the War of 1812. Like Jackson, he served in the civil as well as in the military branch of the government. He was a delegate to Congress from the Northwest Territory, governor of Indiana Territory, member of Congress and Senator from Ohio, and Minister to Columbia. Most of his time was spent on the frontier, and while he had the simple manners and habits usual in such surroundings, he was noted for the great firmness of his character.

Tyler
President,
April 6.

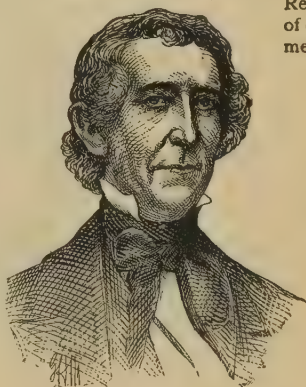
421. Death of President Harrison. — General Harrison was old and in feeble health. The excitement of the campaign and the inauguration, together with pressure from office-seekers (for the Whigs followed the practice for which they condemned the Democrats under Jackson), proved too severe a test for his strength. He died on April 4, just one month after his inauguration.

422. Tyler becomes President. — The death of the President was a profound shock to the country. John Tyler, the Vice President, took the oath and assumed the duties of President two days later.

423. Quarrel between Tyler and the Whigs. — Although Tyler was elected by the Whigs he had been a Democrat, and soon a fierce quarrel broke

out between the President and the Whig majority in Congress. Tyler vetoed in quick succession two bills providing for the establishment of a new national bank, for he shared the Democratic view of the unconstitutionality of such a measure. Immediately all of his cabinet, except Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, resigned.

When the President endeavored to secure the adoption of a financial system of his own, Congress refused to pass the necessary act, and the breach became complete. The quarrel between the executive and Congress lasted throughout the presidential term, making the enactment of any important legislation almost impossible.



Resignation
of cabinet
members.

JOHN TYLER.

424. The Ashburton Treaty.—

The administration was able, however, to perfect in 1842 a treaty, known as the Ashburton Treaty, which settled the boundary of the United States on the northeast. The line agreed upon was that which to-day separates Maine from Canada. It gave to Canada the strip of territory which the king of the Netherlands, acting as arbitrator, had decided, in 1831, belonged to that country (see Sec. 410). The treaty was negotiated by Daniel Webster for the United States and Lord Ashburton for Great Britain. Webster resigned from the cabinet soon after the accomplishment of the treaty.

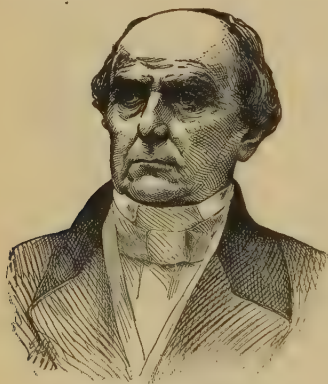
JOHN TYLER was born at Greenway, Virginia, March 29, 1790; died at Richmond, Virginia, January 18, 1862. He was member of Congress, governor of Virginia, and United States Senator. Tyler held the Presidency under trying circumstances. He was a pure man and a man of considerable talent. He presided over the famous Peace Conference of 1861, and served as a Confederate Congressman.

Boundary
between
Maine and
Canada
settled.

425. Dorr's Rebellion.— From 1841 to 1843 the state

Rhode Island
without a
constitution.

of Rhode Island was in a turmoil. An uprising, called "Dorr's Rebellion," had divided the people into bitter factions. Rhode Island had never adopted a constitution, and its government was still administered under the charter granted by Charles II in



DANIEL WEBSTER.

DANIEL WEBSTER was born at Salisbury (now Franklin), New Hampshire, January 18, 1782; died at Marshfield, Massachusetts, October 24, 1852. He served as a member of Congress from New Hampshire. Afterward he removed to Boston and became a member of Congress and then a Senator from Massachusetts. He served in the Senate, in all, nineteen years. He was Secretary of State under Harrison and Tyler, and again under Fillmore. His greatest fame lies in his forceful presentation of the principle that the Union is supreme; that the Constitution rests upon its own strength, and not upon the will of the states. Webster was a master of oratory, and many of his orations are classic.

Rhode Island
adopts a
constitution.

1663 (see Sec. 138). Only men who owned property and their eldest sons were allowed to vote, and thus a majority of citizens had no voice in the government.

In 1841 discontented citizens called a convention, which framed a constitution providing for liberal suffrage, elected a legislature, and chose Thomas W. Dorr governor. Thus the little state had for some time two governments — two legislatures and two governors. Each faction had its troops, and civil war was threatened. At the request of the regular authorities the Federal government interposed, and the Dorr people finally gave way. The uprising was not a failure, for

a regular state convention met, did away with the old charter, and adopted a constitution with the extension of suffrage for which the Dorr faction had contended.

426. The Electric Telegraph. — With the help of funds appropriated by Congress, S. F. B. Morse, an American

inventor, completed a telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington in 1844. The first message sent over the wire was, "What hath God wrought!"

427. The Mormons. — The followers of Joseph Smith, the founder of a new religion called Mormonism, began to attract attention. Smith declared that God had commanded him to be the spiritual leader of the world, and had revealed to him the spot in western New York where plates containing lost records of the Bible had been buried more than a thousand years. In 1830 he published these "records" in the "Book of Mormon." His followers increased rapidly. For a time the chief center of Mormonism was in Ohio; afterward in Missouri.

Joseph
Smith.

Book of
Mormon.

The Missourians were so hostile to the members of the new sect that in 1840 the Mormons crossed over into Illinois, where they built the city of Nauvoo. In their new abode they met with much opposition, and a mob killed Smith, after he had been arrested and placed in jail.

Nauvoo.

Brigham Young was elected to succeed him as the head of the church. Under his guidance the Mormons moved to the valley of the Great Salt Lake, where they founded Salt Lake City (1847). Polygamy, which they practiced for many years, was not sanctioned by the church until after the Mormons reached Salt Lake.

Salt Lake
City.

428. Frémont's Exploration. Whitman in Oregon. — A great part of the country between Missouri and the Rocky Mountains was commonly regarded as barren land unfit for human habitation. Maps of the time marked the immense stretch of prairie as the "Great American Desert." Many thought it was not worth the while to hold our claim against Great Britain for the Oregon country, so far away beyond this waste. Yet Congress made an appropriation of funds to provide for exploring

The "Great
American
Desert."

The
Pathfinder.

the region, and John C. Frémont, a young lieutenant of the army, was selected for the work.

Between 1842 and 1846 he commanded three expeditions. He went over the Rocky Mountains through South Pass (now in Wyoming), explored the valley of the Great Salt Lake, visited the Columbia River, and penetrated into the southern part of California. Though much of the country through which he traveled was Mexican territory, yet he persisted. Frémont's achievements gained for him the name of "Pathfinder."

Meanwhile Marcus Whitman, a missionary, who had lived for many years among the Indians of Oregon, saw that unless Americans occupied that region Great Britain would, through its growing settlements, soon control it. He therefore made a journey to the East and succeeded in returning to Oregon with a party of American settlers in 1843. The explorations of Frémont and the success of Whitman's followers gave such an impetus to emigration to the extreme northwest, that in a few years there were twelve thousand Americans in Oregon.

Twenty-
seventh state.

429. Admission of Florida. — In 1845 Florida, the twenty-seventh state, was admitted into the Union as a slaveholding state.

Polk and
Dallas.

430. Presidential Election. — Meanwhile (1844) a presidential election had occurred. The Democratic nominees were James K. Polk of Tennessee and George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania. The Whigs supported Henry Clay. The main issue was the annexation of Texas.

Opposition to annexation was very strong in the North, especially in New England. The Massachusetts legislature threatened secession in case it took place. The Whigs tried to avoid the issue. The Democrats pronounced openly in its favor, and carried the election. The antislavery

candidates drew from Clay enough votes in New York to give the election to Polk. Many of the abolitionists refrained from voting, insisting that the only way to settle the slavery question was to dissolve the Union.

Antislavery party wields the balance of power in the election.

President Tyler had already made a treaty of annexation with Texas, but the Senate had refused to ratify it. After the election had proved that the people were in favor of annexation, Congress agreed to the admission of Texas, and Tyler signed the act three days before the close of his administration.

Admission of Texas.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 421. DEATH OF HARRISON.
- 422. TYLER BECOMES PRESIDENT.
- 423. TYLER AND THE WHIGS.
- 424. THE ASHBURTON TREATY. — United States boundary line on northeast settled.
- 425. DORR'S REBELLION. — Two governments in Rhode Island.
- 426. THE TELEGRAPH.
- 427. THE MORMONS — Belief; settlements.
- 428. FRÉMONT'S EXPLORATION. — The Pathfinder. Whitman and the beginnings of Oregon.
- 429. ADMISSION OF FLORIDA.
- 430. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — The annexation of Texas; Polk and Dallas.

CHAPTER XXXIII

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES K. POLK

(ELEVENTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1845-1849)

WAR WITH MEXICO (1846-1848)

Agreement
as to Oregon.



JAMES K. POLK.

JAMES KNOX POLK was born in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, November 2, 1795; died at Nashville, Tennessee, June 15, 1849. When a boy, he moved with his father to Tennessee. He was a member of Congress from Tennessee for fourteen years, and was twice elected Speaker. Between the time of his service as Congressman and that of his inauguration as President, he served one term as governor of Tennessee. Polk was a laborious and methodical worker, applying close personal attention to all public matters. These powers served to give him executive capacity of the highest order, and enabled him to carry through successfully every important measure of his administration.

431. Settlement of the Oregon Question. — The ownership of Oregon had never been settled. By the treaty of 1818 (see Sec. 395) the United States and Great Britain had agreed to occupy the country jointly for a period of ten years. Just before the expiration of the ten year term, the two powers decided to continue the joint occupation indefinitely, each reserving the right to end the agreement by giving the other a year's notice.

Oregon extended from the forty-second degree of latitude, the northern boundary of California, to 54° 40', the southern limit of Alaska. The United States and

Great Britain had about equally strong claims to this territory.¹

So strong had become the desire in America for undisputed control of Oregon that the question had been made an issue in the presidential campaign of 1844. The Democrats demanded that all of Oregon be occupied by the United States. "Fifty-four forty or fight" was their cry.

"Fifty-four
forty or
fight."

The next Congress, under control of a Democratic majority, gave Great Britain the year's notice required for the termination of the joint occupancy. Many feared trouble, for it could not be hoped that Great Britain would willingly surrender all of Oregon. Fortunately, through a treaty negotiated in 1846, a compromise was reached. The country was divided almost equally between the two nations by extending the boundary east of the Rocky Mountains (the forty-ninth degree of latitude) westward to sea-water, thence through the Strait of Fuca to the Pacific Ocean.

A compro-
mise.

432. Admission of Texas.—In 1845 Texas was admitted into the Union. Slavery was permitted in the new state.

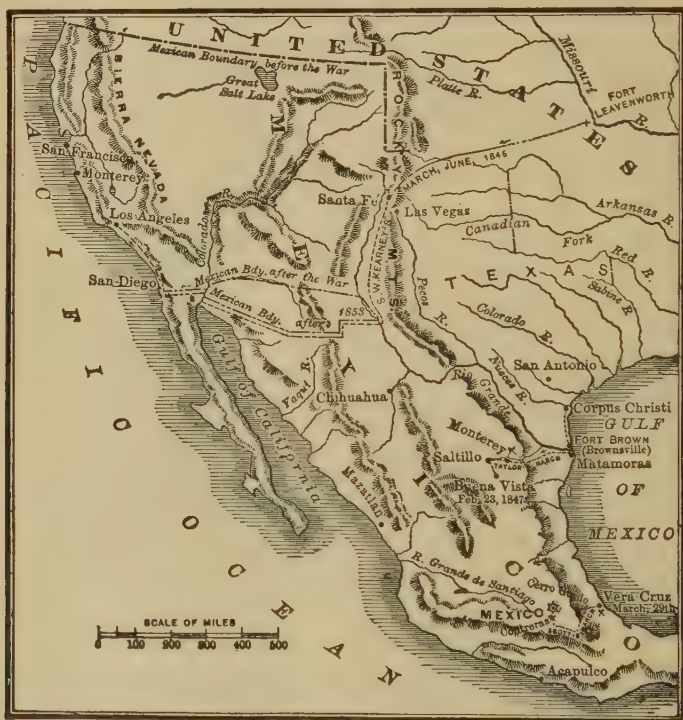
Twenty-
eighth state

433. War with Mexico.—The claims of Mexico upon Texas had never been renounced; therefore the United States, in the annexation of Texas, had committed, in the opinion of Mexico, an act of usurpation. The United

¹ Great Britain had made the earlier discoveries and explorations along the coast, and had planted the first settlement in what is now British Columbia. The Hudson Bay Company, a British corporation, had filled the country with fur traders. The United States based their title on the grounds that Robert Gray, a ship captain of Boston, was the first to enter the mouth of the Columbia (1792) and explore the river; that Lewis and Clark had made extensive explorations through the region (1805–1806); that the earliest settlements in the valley of the Columbia were made by Americans, the first permanent one being Astoria, founded by the Pacific Fur Company (1811). Whatever claims France or Spain once held had long since passed to the United States through treaties.

General
Taylor on the
Rio Grande.

States "army of occupation," under General Zachary Taylor, was ordered to take position between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, that any invasion by Mexican forces might be repelled.



MAP OF THE MEXICAN WAR.

Taylor, in March, moved his army to the Rio Grande and built Fort Brown, opposite the Mexican town of Matamoros. The Mexican general, Ampudia, demanded that Taylor should retire beyond the Nueces, and the American general declined. Mexican troops came upon a scouting

party of Americans on the Texas side of the Rio Grande on April 24, 1846, and killed or captured all of the detachment.

President Polk notified Congress that Mexican soldiers had shed American blood on American soil, and Congress promptly declared that war existed by the act of Mexico. Provision was made for prosecuting the contest to a successful end. The war was so unpopular in the North, however, that almost two thirds of the volunteers came from south of Mason and Dixon's line.

War
declared,
May 13, 1846

434. Operations on the Texas Frontier. — The opposing forces on the frontier had not waited for a formal declaration of war. The Americans were in a perilous position. Weak in numbers, and without hope of speedily receiving reinforcements in their remote quarter, they were confronted by a numerous army. But Taylor was not the man to be appalled by such circumstances; moreover, he had great strength in the thorough discipline of his men. The Mexicans, under General Arista, crossed the Rio Grande in full force to attack him, but he defeated them in quick succession at Palo Alto and at Resaca de la Palma. The Mexicans fought courageously, but their lack of discipline and of leadership lost them the battles. The second battle ended in their rout, and they fled across the Rio Grande.

Taylor at
Palo Alto,
May 8.

Resaca de la
Palma,
May 9.

Taylor followed into Mexico, occupied Matamoras, where he remained until he could recruit his army, and then pushed on into the interior. After a succession of bloody assaults which continued for three days, he received the surrender of Monterey on September 24. He was making further advance when General Winfield Scott, the commander-in-chief of the American army, ordered him to detach a large part of his command for an advance against the City of Mexico.

Occupies
Matamoras.

Takes
Monterey,
Sept. 24.

Taylor and the remnant of his army were now exposed to possible defeat and capture. President Santa Anna, who commanded the Mexicans, determined to crush his antagonist. Taylor made ready to fight, although he had less than five thousand men, while Santa Anna had twenty thousand. The armies met in battle at Buena Vista, February 23, 1847, and the Americans put their enemies to flight. The Americans lost about seven hundred men and the Mexicans more than two thousand. The splendid victory at Buena Vista, against such heavy odds, made Taylor the hero of America.

Defeats
Santa Anna
at Buena
Vista, Feb.
23, 1847.

Kearny
marches into
Mexico.

Santa Fé.

In California.

Upper
California
declared
independent.

435. Operations in Northwest Mexico. — Meanwhile General Stephen W. Kearny had been ordered to occupy the northernmost provinces of Mexico. With about fifteen hundred men he left Fort Leavenworth, now in Kansas, and making a toilsome march of nine hundred miles over plains and mountains, captured Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, August 18, 1846, and took possession of the province. Next he moved toward Upper California. Before his long march was ended, however, the province had already fallen into American hands. John C. Frémont, then on an exploring expedition, had gathered around him the Americans in California and defeated the Mexicans. On July 5, 1846, they declared California independent. San Francisco and other towns on the coast surrendered to the Pacific squadron of the American navy under Commodores Sloat and Stockton.

436. Operations in Central Mexico. — Early in March, 1847, the army of General Scott, numbering twelve thousand, was landed near Vera Cruz, the chief seaport of Mexico. The city was guarded by a fortress considered the strongest on the American continent except the citadel at Quebec. After a bombardment of city and fortress,

Vera Cruz was surrendered to the Americans, March 29, 1847.

Surrender of
Vera Cruz,
March 29,
1847.

From Vera Cruz Scott advanced upon the City of Mexico. At Cerro Gordo, a mountain pass, the Mexican army under Santa Anna was met on April 18, and battle resulted in a victory for the Americans. Sickness, brought on by the tropical climate, losses in battle, and demands for garrison duty had reduced Scott's army to less than five thousand men when he reached Pueblo, in May. Here he waited for reënforcements. In August he again moved forward, now with eleven thousand men. The rest of the way to the capital was marked by a succession of assaults upon Mexican fortifications. In every encounter the Americans were victorious.

Cerro Gordo
April 18.

The Mexicans, numbering thirty thousand, were still commanded by Santa Anna. Though they made valiant resistance, they were compelled to retire before the intrepid advance of the Americans, who carried by storm the intrenched camp at Contreras, the stronghold of Churubusco, the fortified mill, Molino del Rey, and the citadel of Chapultepec. The Mexican loss was fearful. Many brave Americans also fell, and Scott entered the City of Mexico, September 14, with scarcely more than six thousand men. The gallant commander and his equally gallant troops had made one of the most remarkable marches of modern history.

Contreras,
Aug. 19, 20.
Churubusco,
Aug. 20.

Molino del
Rey, Sept. 8.
Chapultepec
Sept. 12, 13.

City of
Mexico
occupied,
Sept. 14.
Peace.

437. **Treaty of Peace.** — The fall of their capital brought the Mexicans to terms. A treaty of peace was signed in Mexico at Guadalupe Hidalgo, February 2, 1848. The western boundary of Texas was fixed at the Rio Grande, and New Mexico and Upper California were ceded to the United States. In return the United States paid Mexico fifteen million dollars, and in addition agreed to pay claims

Boundaries.

against Mexico held by Americans to the amount of three and a half million dollars.

Territory
ceded to the
United
States.

The territory ceded embraced all of the present states of California, Nevada, and Utah, most of Arizona, and portions of New Mexico, Colorado, and Wyoming. The war itself cost the country about twenty-five thousand lives and sixty million dollars.

Sectional
discord
increases.

438. The Wilmot Proviso. — The acquisition of so large an area had increased sectional discord. While hostilities with Mexico were in progress, David Wilmot of Pennsylvania introduced into Congress what is known as the Wilmot Proviso. Its purpose was to prohibit slavery in any territory that might be acquired from Mexico.

North would
forbid slavery
in the terri-
tory acquired
from Mexico.

Although it failed to pass, it inflamed the passions of North and South. The former enthusiastically favored it; the latter bitterly opposed it. Slavery did not exist in Mexican territory and the Northern people were unwilling to carry it there. On the other hand, the Southern people contended that the new territory belonged to the states jointly, that it had been purchased by the blood and treasure of all sections, and that into it any citizen should be allowed to carry his property. The South made many threats of secession should the proviso become a law.

South would
admit
slavery.

The twenty-
ninth and
thirtieth
states.

439. New States. — In 1846 Iowa, the twenty-ninth state, and in 1848 Wisconsin, the thirtieth state, were admitted. The former was a part of the Louisiana purchase and the latter a part of the old Northwest Territory. Both were free-labor states and they offset Florida and Texas, thus preserving the political balance between the sections.

Taylor and
Fillmore.

440. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1848 the Democrats supported Lewis Cass of Michigan and William O. Butler of Kentucky. The Whig nominees were Zachary Taylor of Louisiana, the "hero of Buena Vista," and



Millard Fillmore of New York. Neither of the great parties took a decided stand on slavery. Abolitionists and antislavery Democrats and Whigs organized the Free Soil party, which nominated ex-President Van Buren and Charles Francis Adams, son of the second President Adams. The only state in which the Free Soilers polled a considerable vote was New York, where Van Buren's influence took from the Democratic nominee sufficient votes to give the state to the Whigs, causing the election of Taylor and Fillmore.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

431. THE OREGON QUESTION. — The line of $54^{\circ} 40'$; compromise treaty with Great Britain.
432. TEXAS ADMITTED.
- 433-437. THE MEXICAN WAR. — Cause; occasion; on the Texas frontier: Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, Buena Vista; in northwest Mexico: Santa Fé, Upper California, Frémont and the independence of California; Central Mexico: Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Scott's march, the City of Mexico; treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo; territory added to United States.
438. THE WILMOT PROVISIO.
439. NEW STATES.
440. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — The Free Soil party. Taylor and Fillmore.

CHAPTER XXXIV

PROGRESS OF THE COUNTRY (1849)

441. Boundaries and Population.—When Taylor came to the Presidency, sixty years had passed since Washington's inauguration. The country's advancement had been great in area, in population, and in material prosperity. The United States proper embraced the same area that it does to-day, except for a narrow strip on the southern borders of New Mexico and Arizona. Yet the region beyond the Mississippi valley was almost entirely unoccupied; indeed, there were but five states west of the river itself.

Area.

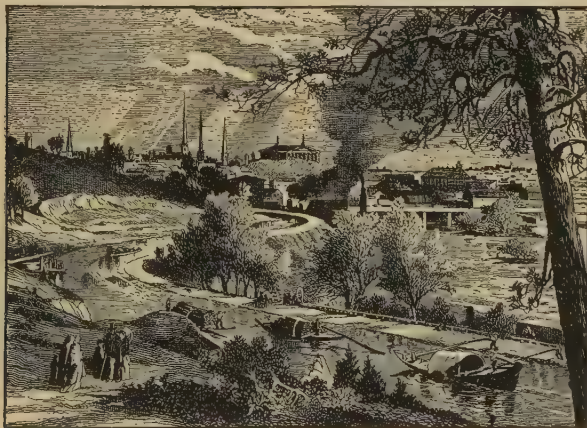
Territories.

There were but two organized territories—Oregon (organized 1848), comprising the present states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho; and Minnesota (organized 1849), comprising the present state of Minnesota and a great part of the two Dakotas. New Mexico and California were the names of the eastern and western halves of the immense Mexican cession. They had been provinces under Mexican rule; as yet the United States had not provided government for them. Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota and South Dakota, Montana, Idaho, Washington, Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and Oklahoma had no places on the map. Indeed, a large area lying between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains was still described in atlases as the "Great American Desert."

Population.

Though population had not reached out into the extreme West, it had made a steady westward movement, and ir

sixty years had increased from four million to twenty-three million. West of the Alleghanies there were three times The West. as many people as were in the whole United States in 1790. The five most populous states were New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, and Tennessee.



A VIEW OF RICHMOND.

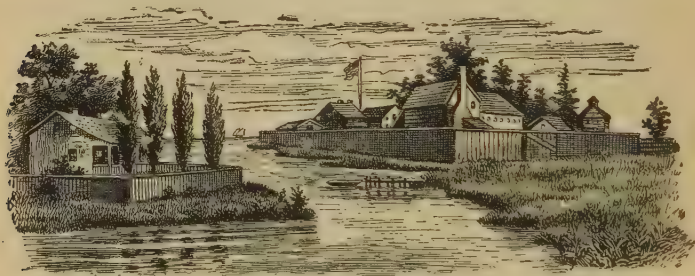
From an old print.

The old pioneers of the middle West, many of whom Progress. were yet living, could see the great reward of their labor and hardships. The bridle path had been widened into the turnpike and the pack horse had been succeeded by the stagecoach. The bateau, the raft, and the flat-bottom barge had given way to the quick-moving steamer. The comforts of life were brought to the very door of the Western man.

Since the West was now easier to reach, and life there The West filling up. was made pleasanter, thousands of emigrants made haste to occupy the unopened lands. As yet, however, railroads beyond the Alleghanies were few and far apart.

442. The Cities.—The cities showed remarkable growth. Most of the larger ones were still to be found on the Atlantic slope. The people who had moved westward were mainly native Americans, but their places in the Eastern states were filled by foreign immigrants. New York had grown from thirty-three thousand in Washington's time to five hundred thousand in Taylor's time; Philadelphia from thirty thousand to four hundred thousand; Baltimore from

Population
of the cities.



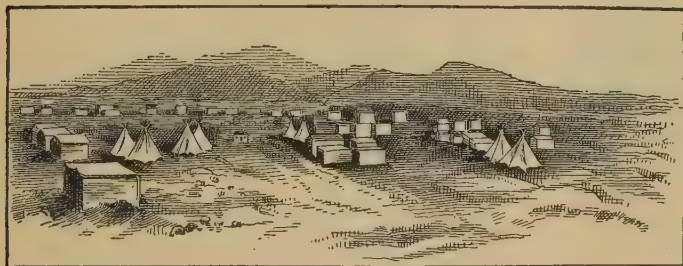
FORT DEARBORN AND KINSIE MANSION, CHICAGO, 1832.

thirteen thousand to one hundred and seventy thousand; Boston from eighteen thousand to one hundred and thirty-five thousand. Beyond the mountains, Cincinnati, a hamlet of Washington's time, had grown to be a city of more than one hundred thousand. On the Mississippi, New Orleans had a population of about a hundred and fifteen thousand, and St. Louis seventy-five thousand. All these cities belonged, however, to the well-settled portions of America.

Many of the cities farther to the west or the northwest, whose names are to-day familiar to every household, were then only villages; the sites of others were but forest or prairie. In 1849 Chicago was nineteen years old, and

contained only thirty thousand persons. Milwaukee was still younger, and its population did not exceed twenty thousand. St. Paul was a pleasant little village, with but eleven hundred citizens; while its neighbor and rival of the present day, Minneapolis, was too small to appear in the census of 1850. A few huts on the bank of the Missouri marked the present Kansas City. Far away on the Pacific coast was San Francisco, a slow seaport of two thou-

Towns in the
"Far West."



DENVER IN 1858.

From a sketch.

sand inhabitants. Omaha, Topeka, Denver, and Seattle are among the well-known cities of to-day of which President Taylor never heard.

443. Life in the Cities.—Men were amassing large fortunes. The condition of the cities had improved in almost every respect. The houses were handsome and were fitted up with many conveniences. Gas was used for illuminating purposes and coal for fuel. The plumber was kept busy, for waterworks had supplanted the pump and well. Police service had taken the place of the night watchman. Yet there was not a street car, a steam fire-engine, telephone, or electric light. The old volunteer fire department was in all its glory. On account of its

Progress
shown in the
cities.

large membership, a fire company was always a power in city politics.

Dress.

Society, in the narrow sense in which the word is frequently used, laid great stress upon wealth. In dress, display was the aim, rather than simplicity. The man wore a tall stiff hat; a very large coat, cut low in front,



A SOUTHERN PLANTER.

with long skirts and big buttons; a waistcoat cut low to match the coat; a soft-rolled collar around which a huge bow was fastened. The woman wore a Quaker shaped bonnet, gaudily decorated and tied under the chin; a long-waisted, tight-fitting basque; a very full skirt trimmed with many flounces. Around the shoulders she wore a mantalet, a kind of shawl trimmed with lace or fringe. She brushed her hair smooth and close to the forehead and arranged it on the sides in such a way as to cover the ears completely. At the back of the head it was gathered into a knot from which hung curls.

Amusements.

The theater was very popular. Society had adopted round dancing—the waltz and the german. Little attention was given to athletics, even in the colleges. Town ball, the forerunner of baseball, was a favorite outdoor game.

Increase in manufactures.

444. **Manufactures and Commerce.**—When Washington was President there was little manufacturing; at the time of Monroe's administration it was just becoming important; but in Taylor's time manufactures had increased to such an extent that there were more persons dependent upon the factory system for support than there had been inhabitants in all the United States in Washing-

ton's day. New England manufactured cotton and woolen goods, while the Middle states and Ohio made iron wares. Almost every kind of manufactured article was now made in America. Mills and workshops abounded in the North, and thriving factory towns dotted that section. In the South, where agriculture was still the main industry, there were very few factories.

It had become a common matter for steamers to cross the Atlantic. Regular voyages, requiring about twelve days, were made for carrying passengers and the mails. Commerce had kept pace with the general growth of the country. The American flag could be seen in every great port of the world. The navigation and commerce of the United States, wrote Webster in 1850, "are hardly exceeded by the oldest and most commercial nations." To encourage shipping, Congress had already begun granting steamships large bounties¹ for the carrying of oceanic mails. This gave additional ground for complaint on the part of those who believed in the doctrine of states' rights.

Commerce.

Subsidies to steamships.

445. Modes of Travel. — Twenty years had passed since a locomotive had been first used in the United States, yet so little progress had been made in railroad building that in 1849 there were in the whole country less than six thousand miles of track. There was no direct line of railroad between Boston and New York. Trains connected New York with Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington, but it was impossible to reach the capital city from the south or west entirely by rail.

Railroads.

There were no great through systems. All railroads were what might be called neighborhood railroads, as they connected towns only a short distance apart. The trav-

¹ *Bounty*: a premium offered to encourage any branch of industry, as manufactures or commerce.

Lack of
connections.

eler was fortunate if, after riding the short length of one road, he reached a town where another road would carry him farther on his journey. In journeying great distances he made many changes from car to steamboat, canal boat, and stagecoach. Schedule time was seldom kept, and connections were bad. Not many railroads sent out trains on Sunday; to do so aroused much opposition. Few



OLD-TIME STAGECOACH AND INN.

people believed that a locomotive would ever be able to cross a mountain. Many a large river was yet unbridged, and a passenger had to leave his car, cross the river by ferry, and board another train on the other side.

Route from
New Orleans
to Washing-
ton.

It was better to go from Charleston or Savannah to Washington by steamer, via Norfolk, than to go overland partly by rail and partly by stagecoach. A resident of New Orleans or the Southwest, wishing to visit the capital, would go in a steamboat up the Mississippi and Ohio until Wheeling was reached; thence he would cross the mountains in a stagecoach along the National Road to Cumberland, Maryland, where he would find cars for Baltimore. At Baltimore he would change again for

Washington. This was the route that Taylor took in journeying from his plantation home in Louisiana to Washington to be inaugurated. It was even more difficult to go from Chicago to Washington; the flourishing Western town had only one short railroad, and was at a great distance from the steamboats of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. The discomforts of traveling would appall a man of to-day, and expenses were double what they are now. Those were still the times of state bank money. A traveler did well to carry plenty of coin with him, for the farther he went from his home bank, unless it were a bank of one of the chief cities of trade, the less were his bank-notes worth.

Discomforts
and expense
of travel.

446. Frequency of Accidents.—Energy already characterized the American people. They wanted to move fast. More railroads must be built, and built rapidly, and with this year, 1849, railroad building may be said to have begun in earnest. The demand for quicker transportation could be met only by the hasty construction of roadbeds and of railroad and steamboat engines; and the haste led to many fearful accidents.

Dangers.

The loss of life in proportion to the amount of travel was much greater than at present. Accidents on land and water were so frequent that a great outcry was raised against such murderous modes of travel. A Senator remarked in the course of a speech in the Senate, that he would rather go into an Indian battle than go in a steamboat to his distant home to see his wife and children. Finally Federal and state governments took the matter in hand. Congress passed a law requiring the inspection by Federal officials of every steamboat boiler, and states enacted statutes making the railroad companies liable for the death of passengers, or injury to them, when due to

State
enactments
concerning
railroads.

the negligence of the company. These laws are in force at the present time.¹

Extension of
telegraph
lines.

447. **The Telegraph.** — Only five years had passed since Morse ran his forty-mile wire connecting the cities of Baltimore and Washington by telegraph. Mexican war news was slow in coming because there were so few telegraph lines, and the people were kept long in anxious suspense about the fate of the army. Battles were fought and won, even on the Texas frontier, months before the news was known throughout the United States. It was not until the year 1848 that a line was laid under the Hudson River into New York. Up to that time messages for New York, received at Jersey City, had been carried over the river by boat.

The express.

448. **The Express.** — In 1839 W. E. Harnden, an enterprising young man, started the express business. He advertised that he would carry money and small parcels between the cities of New York and Boston. His route between these cities was partly by water and partly by land. At first his business was so small that he could carry all the packages intrusted to him in a single carpet bag or valise; yet it grew so fast that in the next year a company was organized to compete with Harnden for the express business between New York and Boston. The express service was soon extended to all the large cities.

Rates of
postage.

449. **The Post-office.** — Postage was still charged according to distance. A letter was carried three thousand miles at the rate of three cents for every half-ounce or fraction thereof, if prepaid, and for five cents if not prepaid. For

¹ In four years (1853) railroad mileage had increased threefold (15,000 miles), and in eleven years (1860) had doubled itself again (30,000 miles). The present mileage is, in round numbers, 200,000.

distances greater than three thousand miles the rate was six cents if prepaid and ten cents if not prepaid.

Envelopes and postage stamps had come into use. The introduction of stamps came about in this way: before the letter-carrier system was established in the cities, private companies delivered letters, using stamps to show that the fee had been paid. Postmasters, seeing how well the stamps worked, adopted the plan. It was so much easier for postmasters to use a stamp than to write "prepaid" on the envelope before sending it on, that they had stamps printed on their own responsibility. In order to pay the cost of printing, they sold them at a price slightly in advance of their face value. People willingly paid the additional expense of postage; it was a convenience to buy a number of stamps at one time, and avoid the necessity for going to the post-office and paying cash for each letter. The demand that the government make the stamps and sell them at face value became so general that in 1847 the government adopted the postage stamp system.

How the convenient stamp came into use.

Postage stamp system, 1847.

450. Inventions and Discoveries.—In 1831 Cyrus H. McCormick, a Virginia planter, invented the reaping machine, which has done more for the cause of agriculture than any other invention of the nineteenth century. In 1842 Dr. Crawford W. Long of Georgia discovered that by the use of ether he could make a patient insensible to the pains of a surgical operation.¹ The discovery that

The reaping machine, 1831.

Anæsthetics, 1842.

¹ Dr. Long communicated his valuable discovery to medical men of his acquaintance, but before it became generally known, three other men, unaware of Dr. Long's success, experimented on the same line, and each claimed the credit for the discovery. These men were Doctors Wells of Hartford, and Morton and Jackson of Boston. To Dr. Long, however, undoubtedly belongs the prior claim.

chloroform could be put to the same use was not made until later (1847), and then by an English physician.

Vulcaniza-
tion of
rubber.

In 1843 Charles Goodyear, a native of Connecticut, discovered that a mixture of India rubber and sulphur formed a highly useful composition. The process is known as vulcanizing. Pure rubber melts in hot weather, and until Goodyear's discovery it was of little value for manufacturing purposes. In 1846 Elias Howe, a poor mechanic of Massachusetts, patented the sewing machine.

Howe's
sewing
machine,
1846.

Yet none of these important inventions and discoveries had been fully accepted by 1849. The reaper was but slowly taking the place of the old scythe; the use of ether was regarded by some as a hoax, and opposed by others as morally wrong, because they thought pain the result of original sin, and that Providence intended that pain should be endured; the sewing machine was sneered at by many as of little value; even vulcanized rubber was put to few uses compared to the many thousand kinds of articles now made of it.

Newspapers.

451. **Newspapers.** **Schools.** — Periodicals and newspapers numbered two thousand; more than three hundred of the newspapers were dailies. In many of the states the public school system was by this time very generally established.

California
neglected
under
Mexico.

452. **Gold in California.** — When Upper California, or California as we know it, was given up by Mexico, it was regarded as an acquisition of no great importance. As a Mexican province it had been neglected. Its white inhabitants were few, and Mexico had given them little attention except to extort taxes from them. But the province which was thought to be of little value soon proved to be a land of boundless promise. The lonely country was changed, as though in a night, into a populous, bustling

A land of
boundless
promise

commonwealth. The cause of this swift change was the finding of gold.

Early in 1848, shiny particles of the yellow metal were found on the land of John A. Sutter, near the present city of Sacramento. The discovery happened just nine days before the signing of the treaty with Mexico, and the transfer of California to the United States was made without any knowledge of it. By the beginning of the year 1849 the news had spread over the United States, and then began a rush to the gold fields.¹

A rush to the gold fields.



THE OVERLAND ROUTE TO CALIFORNIA.

California became the craze. Newspapers gave tempting accounts of the wealth which only waited for the fortune hunter. The route by sea to the new Eldorado was around Cape Horn or by the Isthmus of Panama. Many eager gold seekers made their way, however, across prairie and plain, and over the Rocky Mountains.

The journey across the continent presented hardships and dangers seldom encountered by mankind. Many a poor fellow died on the way. Tales of the sufferings of those who had gone ahead were borne back to the East, but they did not prevent other venturesome spirits from following. All through the spring and summer so many

The way to California, 1849.

¹ Before the acquisition of California the output of gold in the United States was small, and was obtained from the mountainous regions of Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia.

Thousands
make the
venture.

thousands went that they formed an almost unbroken train from the outskirts of Missouri to the foot of the Rocky Mountains. Every kind of vehicle—the “prairie schooner” (a long canvas-covered wagon drawn by six horses or oxen), the farm wagon, and even the push cart and wheelbarrow—was to be seen in the line.

Develop-
ment.



A FORTY-NINER.

By the end of December one hundred thousand people had reached the territory. On account of the year they are called the “forty-niners.” Sacramento, a settlement probably of not more than twenty-five inhabitants in April, became a thriving city of nearly ten thousand by October. San Francisco leaped to twenty thousand. In the mining camps, springing up so suddenly, a woman was a rare blessing, and a baby was a curiosity.¹

Lawlessness.

The “forty-niners” were mostly Americans, though every part of the world was represented. Many were outcasts and criminals. As there were no laws for the territory, a condition bordering on anarchy prevailed. Robberies, murders, and lynchings were frequent. In order to give the wild country a government, the better element adopted a constitution in November. The constitution prohibited slavery. Men who had sped across plain and mountain had not the time to carry slaves with them, even if they had wished to.

¹ “Tickets to a wedding sold readily at five dollars each. Miners separated from home would frequently travel miles to see a child, and would weep at the sound of its voice. A child born in the diggings received presents of gold dust that would have constituted a modest fortune in the states.” — Sparks’s “Expansion of the American People,” p. 342.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 441. BOUNDARIES AND POPULATION. — Compare area and divisions of the country with those of to-day; population; changes in West.
- 442. THE CITIES. — Beginnings of present large cities.
- 443. LIFE IN THE CITIES. — Modern conveniences; dress; amusements.
- 444. MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. — Compare industries of different sections of the country; Atlantic steamers.
- 445-446. MODES OF TRAVEL. — Poor connections; discomforts; accidents; inspection laws.
- 447-449. MEANS OF COMMUNICATION. — The telegraph; express; postal service.
- 450. INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES. — The reaper; anæsthetics; vulcanized rubber; the sewing machine.
- 451. NEWSPAPERS. SCHOOLS.
- 452. GOLD IN CALIFORNIA. — Discovery; "the forty-niners"; mode of emigration; transformation of California.

CHAPTER XXXV

ADMINISTRATIONS OF TAYLOR AND FILLMORE (TWELFTH AND THIRTEENTH PRESIDENTS, ONE TERM, 1849-1853)



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

The slavery question brought forward again.

ZACHARY TAYLOR was born in Orange County, Virginia, September 24, 1784; died at Washington, July 9, 1850. When a young man he received a commission as first lieutenant of the army. He served in the War of 1812, the Indian wars, and the Mexican War, and rose to the rank of major general. His brilliant successes in the Mexican War gained him the Presidency. Having spent his life in the army, Taylor had never held a civil office before he became President. His opponents charged that he had never voted, and that his unfamiliarity with public affairs made him an unsuitable person for chief magistrate. On assuming the office, however, he showed such remarkable knowledge of the duties required of him that had he been spared to serve his term he would doubtless have proved to be one of our best Presidents.

453. The California Question.—Taylor's administration was soon in the midst of a political tempest. When Congress met in December, 1849, it was well understood that California would adopt an antislavery constitution, though news that this step had already been taken had not reached the East. At once the admission of California became the leading question, and the slavery controversy was again before the country.

The North insisted not only upon the immediate admission of California, but also upon the exclusion of slavery from all territories, and the abolition of it in the District of Columbia. The South was united in opposi-

tion to all these demands. It asserted that California was not ready for statehood, and argued that the legal course would be to place it first under territorial government, and leave the question of slavery to be decided by the inhabitants when the territory was ready for admission. Though the South held that it was unconstitutional for Congress to exclude slavery from the public domain, it was willing for the Missouri Compromise line to be extended to the Pacific Ocean. Thus the Mexican cession would be divided between the North and the South, and California would be cut into two states.

The South
willing to
compromise

454. Secession Feeling in the South. — Each side charged the other with encroaching upon its rights, and the Union was nearer to dissolution than it had been even in the struggle over Missouri thirty years before. Many Southerners believed that the time had come for their states to secede; for, they said, the North was already construing the Constitution and shaping legislation in the interest of the North and to the injury of the South. Hardly a man in the South doubted the right of a state to secede. The majority preferred to remain in the Union if their interests could be secured; but they saw that the admission of California would put an end to the balance between the sections, since the South had no new state to propose as an offset.

The South
alarmed.

455. Clay proposes a Compromise. — Henry Clay, the "Great Pacificator," came to the aid of the Union when its life seemed hanging by a thread. In January, 1850, he proposed a compromise, the principal features of which were as follows: to appease the North (1) California to be admitted without slavery, (2) the slave trade, but not slavery, to be prohibited in the District of Columbia; to appease the South, (3) the remainder of the Mexican

Clay's
proposed
compromise

cession to be organized into territories without restriction as to slavery, (4) a more stringent fugitive slave law to be

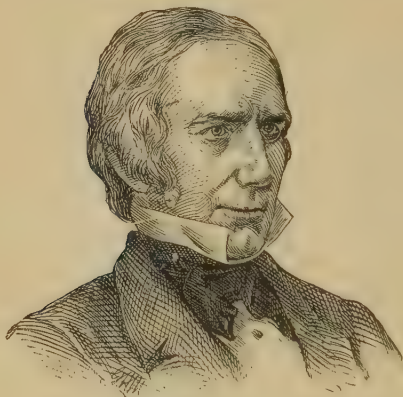
enacted; to satisfy Texas, (5) payment to be made to that state for giving up territory claimed by both Texas and the general government.

Clay pleaded earnestly for the adoption of his measure; Calhoun opposed it. He argued that the admission of California would be an act of injustice to the South. Webster, in his famous "Seventh of March" speech, supported the Compromise, making an eloquent call upon each section to yield something for the good of the Union.

This was the last occa-

sion on which the immortal trio met together in debate.¹

William H. Seward, a Senator from New York, opposed the Compromise, but for a reason the very opposite of Cal-



HENRY CLAY.

HENRY CLAY was born in Hanover County, Virginia, April 12, 1777; died at Washington, June 29, 1852. He removed to Kentucky, representing the state in each house of Congress. He was repeatedly elected Speaker of the House, and served in the Senate thirteen years; was one of the commissioners for the treaty of peace closing the War of 1812, and was Secretary of State under J. Q. Adams. Coming from a border state, Clay occupied a neutral position in the angry dissensions between North and South, and his was often the part to pacify the conflicting elements with a compromise. This he did with consummate skill. No leader ever had a following more strongly attached to himself personally than Clay; his persuasive eloquence held men like a spell.

Calhoun
opposes.

Webster
supports
Clay.

Seward
opposes.

¹ The hand of death was already upon Calhoun. He was too feeble to deliver his speech, but sat in his seat in the Senate while a fellow-senator read it. He died only a few weeks later, March 31, 1850. Clay and Webster survived him two years, the former dying June 29, 1852; the latter, October 24, 1852.

houn's, namely, that the North would be yielding too much. It was in his speech on this occasion that he asserted that there is a "higher law" than the Constitution — an assertion hailed with delight by the abolitionists, who from the first had declared opposition to the Constitution because it protected slavery.

Seward's
"higher law"
speech.



MEDAL PRESENTED BY CONGRESS TO HENRY CLAY.

456. Death of President Taylor. — The debate on the Compromise, growing more and more heated, had continued for seven months, and the result was still in suspense, when President Taylor died, July 9, 1850, after a brief illness.

Death of
Taylor, July
9, 1850.

457. Fillmore becomes President. — Vice President Fillmore, on the day following Taylor's death, took the oath of office as President.

458. The Compromise of 1850 Effected. — Finally, in 1850, the Compromise measures were adopted. Though Congress did not combine them into one bill, but passed them in several acts, they are always grouped together and called "The Compromise of 1850." California was immediately admitted, and the remainder of the Mexican

Clay's Com-
promise bill
passed, 1850

cession was organized into the territories of New Mexico and Utah.

459. The Fugitive Slave Law.—Two of the Compromise measures require explanation. The Constitution provided

A slave is property and cannot legally be seized.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

MILLARD FILLMORE was born at Summer Hill, Cayuga County, New York, February 7, 1800; died at Buffalo, in the same state, March 8, 1874. In his youth he was very poor. He learned the trade of a fuller, but soon became a lawyer. Besides holding state offices he represented New York in Congress for a number of years. During his presidential term his political opponents had a majority in both houses of Congress, and hence his administration, though an able one, was at a disadvantage. Fillmore retained the esteem of all because of his personal integrity, his dignified statesmanship, and his courtly demeanor. In 1856 he was the unsuccessful candidate of the American party for the Presidency.

that a slave escaping into another state must be delivered to his owner.¹ To carry this provision into effect Congress had passed, in Washington's administration, a law making it the duty of state officials to return the fugitive slave. Some of the Northern states had passed "personal liberty laws," which prevented the surrender of the runaway, thus nullifying not only a law of Congress, but even a mandate of the Constitution. The law of 1850, besides being much more stringent, placed upon the Federal officials in each state the duty of returning slaves to their owners.

460. The Texas Boundary.

—Texas claimed a large area

on its northern and western borders, which the general government also claimed as a part of the Mexican cession. By the Compromise the claim of Texas was purchased for ten million dollars, and the boundary of the state was fixed

¹ See Constitution, Art. IV, Sec. 2.

personal
liberty laws

as it is at present. The disputed territory now forms part of Wyoming, Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico.

461. Presidential Election.—The candidates of the Democrats in the election of 1852 were Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, and William R. King of Alabama. The Whig candidates were General Winfield Scott of Virginia, who had shared with Taylor the glory of the Mexican War, and William A. Graham of North Carolina. Both parties indorsed in their platforms the Compromise of 1850. While Scott was acceptable to Northern Whigs, the platform was not; and while the platform was acceptable to Southern Whigs, Scott was not. In consequence, Pierce and King were elected by an overwhelming majority. Of the thirty-one states the Whigs carried only four. The Free Soilers again failed to carry a state.

Pierce and
King, 1852

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

453-454. THE CALIFORNIA QUESTION.—Slavery; secession feeling in South.

455. CLAY'S COMPROMISE.

456. DEATH OF PRESIDENT TAYLOR.

457. FILLMORE BECOMES PRESIDENT.

458. THE COMPROMISE OF 1850.

459. THE FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

460. THE TEXAS BOUNDARY.

461. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.—Pierce and King.

CHAPTER XXXVI

ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE

(FOURTEENTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1853-1857)

Additional
territory.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FRANKLIN PIERCE was born at Hillsborough, New Hampshire, November 23, 1804; died at Concord, New Hampshire, October 8, 1869. He was graduated from Bowdoin College. He represented his native state in each branch of Congress and served in the Mexican War as a brigadier general. Pierce was an able lawyer and a fluent speaker. He believed in a government of limited powers, conducted with the strictest economy, and he consistently upheld this view of government throughout his administration.

462. The Gadsden Purchase.

—Through a treaty with Mexico the United States purchased, in 1853, about 45,000 square miles of territory south of New Mexico. The price paid was ten million dollars. The treaty was made through James Gadsden of South Carolina, Minister to Mexico.

463. The Kansas - Nebraska Act.

—The hope that the Compromise of 1850 would take the slavery question out of politics soon proved to be deceitful. In 1854 Congress passed a law organizing the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. The area included in these territories lay north of the Missouri Compromise line, and therefore in that part of the public domain in which Congress had pro-

nibited slavery. However, it was claimed that the Compromise of 1850 had taken the place of the Missouri Compromise; and the law organizing Kansas and Nebraska actually repealed it. The inhabitants of these territories were thus allowed to decide whether they would admit slavery.

Territories
to decide
slavery for
themselves

In enacting the measure Congress took the position always maintained by states' rights men, who denied the right of Congress to legislate upon slavery in the territories, and who, consequently, denied that the Missouri Compromise was constitutional. The Kansas-Nebraska bill was introduced by Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, and was supported by many Northern Democrats in Congress. The Southern members also naturally voted for it.

Stephen A.
Douglas.

It was hoped that the passage of this bill would quiet slavery agitation; on the contrary, it not only increased the bitterness of the antislavery people, but even divided the Democratic party into two factions, differing as to the time when the people of a territory should decide the slavery question. The Northern wing, led by Douglas, asserted that the act gave the people power to decide while still in their territorial condition. This power was known as "popular sovereignty," or more generally as "squatter sovereignty."¹ The Southern wing contended that the decision could be made only when the territory had framed a state constitution, and that in the meantime the property of the slave owner in the territory must receive protection.

Squatter
sovereignty
Contention
of the South

464. Guerilla Warfare in Kansas.— "Popular" or "squatter" sovereignty was soon given a test. The section that

¹ The name "squatter sovereignty" was given the doctrine by its opponents because, they claimed, it left the decision to the first settlers, who were known as "squatters."

Kansas
becomes a
pivot.

North and
South strive
to gain
Kansas.

Disorder in
Kansas.

Lawlessness.

gained control of the new territories would gain a controlling influence in the government. When Kansas was opened for settlement, many slave owners moved into the territory from the adjoining state of Missouri, and it seemed as if Kansas would become a slaveholding state. To prevent such a result, emigrant aid societies in the North sent great numbers of people to Kansas. Then there began in earnest a struggle between Northern and Southern factions for the control of the proposed state. The men who went to Kansas, whether for or against slavery, carried their weapons.

The factions settled in opposite parts of the territory. Each had its legislature, and neither recognized the laws of the other. In 1856 a newspaper office and a hotel at Lawrence, a town of the antislavery faction, were destroyed by a sheriff's posse. The sheriff was an officer of the proslavery faction. In revenge, a man named John Brown, assisted by his sons and a few antislavery neighbors, killed five proslavery men living near Pottawatomie Creek. Brown excused the deed with the assertion: "I have no choice. It has been decreed by the Almighty God." Guerilla warfare broke out, hostile bands met, and death was the result. John Brown's name became notorious for bloody work. The taking of life became so common that men who really desired to become settlers were compelled to have weapons at hand while they tilled their fields. Towns were plundered and burned, and every form of lawlessness went unchecked in the territory. It cannot be said "which faction surpassed the other in misdeeds."¹ The new territory became known everywhere as "Bleeding Kansas."

465. Personal Liberty Laws. — The indignation of the

¹ Spring's "Kansas," p. 176.

North because of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was shown in renewed opposition to the fugitive slave law. Personal liberty laws, more sweeping in their effect, were passed (see Sec. 459). In every Northern state except two¹ the Federal law was nullified either by legislative enactment or by the interference of state officials.

Fugitive
slaves.

Riots occurred in Northern cities when attempts were made to return slaves to their owners. Abolitionists and antislavery people in general united in helping the fugitives to Canada. They made use of a system known as the "underground railroad," whereby the slave was assisted from place to place until he reached the boundary. The number of slaves who ran away from bondage was small, and the number of attempts to recover them was even smaller; but resistance to the law in Northern communities deepened the antagonism between the sections.

The
underground
railroad.

466. Political Parties.—The Whig party, divided by the Wilmot Proviso and the Compromise of 1850, ceased to exist. On the other hand, the Kansas-Nebraska Act caused the defection of many Democrats, and there suddenly sprang up a new party, the Native American, whose chief purpose was to oppose the growing power of the foreigner in elections.

At first it was a secret organization, derisively called the "Know-nothing" party, because its members, when questioned about it, would invariably answer, "I know nothing." The name clung to the party. Its rallying cries, "Put none but Americans on guard" and "America for Americans," had great effect. Its growth was so rapid that in the elections of 1854 it carried some of the states; but since it took no decided stand in relation to slavery, it did not attract the more pronounced antislavery Democrats

The Know-
nothings.

¹ New Jersey and California.

and Whigs, who united and founded the Republican party of the present time.

Buchanan
and
Breckinridge.

467. Presidential Election. — At the presidential election of 1856 there were three tickets, as follows: Democratic, James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, and John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky; Republican, John C. Frémont of California, and William L. Dayton of New Jersey; American (Know-nothing), ex-President Fillmore and Andrew J. Donelson of Tennessee. A remnant of the old Whig party supported the American candidates, but the contest was between Democrats and Republicans. The former indorsed the Kansas-Nebraska Act, while the latter declared that Congress should exclude slavery from the territories, and demanded the admission of Kansas without slavery. Buchanan and Breckinridge were elected. The Republicans, though it was their first appearance in a presidential election, carried eleven states in the North, and had polled an immense popular vote. Such evidence of the rapid growth of antislavery feeling caused great alarm at the South.

Republicans
carry eleven
states.

The Whigs disappeared entirely after the election; and the Know-nothings vanished as suddenly as they had risen. From this time on, the lines were sharply drawn between Democrats and Republicans.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

462. THE GADSDEN PURCHASE.

463. THE KANSAS-NEBRASKA ACT. — Occasion; substance; intention of bill; effect.

464. GUERRILLA WARFARE IN KANSAS. — Settlers; opposing factions; John Brown; "Bleeding Kansas."

465. PERSONAL LIBERTY LAWS. — The underground railroad.

466. POLITICAL PARTIES. — "Know-nothing" party; the Republican party.

467. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Parties; Buchanan and Breckinridge.

CHAPTER XXXVII

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES BUCHANAN

(FIFTEENTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1857-1861)

468. The Dred Scott Decision. — Dred Scott was a Missouri slave whose owner had taken him to what is now Minnesota before the Missouri Compromise was repealed. Scott brought suit, claiming that he was freed by reason of his residence in territory in which Congress had forbidden slavery. In 1857 the United States Supreme Court denied his claim, and in its decision announced two very important principles: (1) that a negro was not a citizen of the United States, and therefore could not bring suit in the United States court; (2) that a slave was property which the owner could carry into a territory just as any other property, and that therefore any



JAMES BUCHANAN.

JAMES BUCHANAN was born near Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791; died in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, June 1, 1868. He was graduated from Dickinson College. He was a representative in Congress and United States Senator, serving in the two houses twenty-two years. He represented the United States as Minister to Russia, and to Great Britain, and during Polk's administration was Secretary of State. Buchanan was a man of ability, and was thoroughly informed as to public affairs. So much of his life was spent in holding high positions that he was called "Old Public Functionary."

A Missouri slave taken to a free-labor state.

A negro not a citizen.

A slave decided to be property and the owner to merit protection.

Missouri
Compromise
unconstitu-
tional.

restriction placed by Congress upon slavery in the territories, such as the Missouri Compromise, was unconstitutional and void.

Party strife
increased.

The decision was in accord with the Kansas-Nebraska Act; it sustained the position assumed by the South, and thus condemned the main plank in the Republican platform. But instead of allaying, it increased, partisan strife. The Republicans denounced the decision as a political act of a Democratic supreme court, and declared their intention of not abiding by it.

First cable,
1858.

469. The Atlantic Cable.—The people of all sections of the country rejoiced in an event which emphasized American genius. Through the untiring efforts of Cyrus W. Field of New York, who was at the head of a company organized for the purpose, in 1858 a telegraphic cable was laid from Newfoundland to Ireland. After a few weeks of communication between the Old World and the New, the cable, through some imperfection, failed to work. Eight years later another was laid that proved entirely successful.

Thirty-three
states.

470. Admission of Minnesota and Oregon. Admission of Kansas Delayed.—Minnesota, the thirty-second state, was admitted in 1858, and Oregon, the thirty-third state, in 1859. In each state slavery was prohibited.

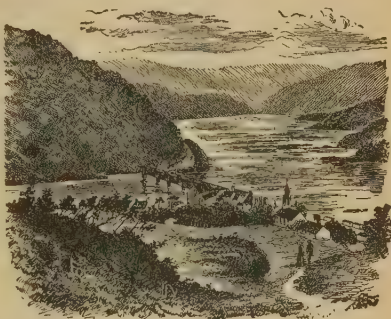
Sectional
feeling.

Kansas failed of admission; the attempt, in 1857-1858, to make a state of this territory, provoked further angry discussion of the slavery question. For months Congress wrangled over Kansas, and the agitation spread to the remotest points of the land. North and South were drifting wider and wider apart. The fraternal feeling, for which the founders of the government had planned, was losing itself in sectional controversy.

471. John Brown.—On the night of October 16, 1859, John Brown, already notorious for deeds of blood in Kan-

sas, seized the arsenal belonging to the United States at Harper's Ferry, on the south side of the Potomac. He had with him eighteen men. His purpose was to free the slaves, and not doubting that they would flock to him, he had brought arms for a thousand men. Residents of the town and neighborhood were forcibly taken and held as hostages. News of the event spread rapidly, and militia and armed citizens hurried to the scene. During the whole of the following day, fighting went on between Brown's band and the Virginians. Men on both sides were killed.

Attempt
to incite
insurrection
of slaves.



HARPER'S FERRY IN 1859.

On October 18 Lieutenant Colonel Robert E. Lee, afterward so greatly distinguished, arrived with a company of United States marines. He forced open the engine house of the armory, into which Brown, fighting with desperate courage, had retired, and captured the leader and his surviving followers. In the Virginia courts Brown and six companions were convicted of treason, murder, and advising with slaves to rebel, and were hanged.

Robert E.
Lee.

Brown and
others
executed.

Fortunately the slaves did not rise at the call of Brown. Yet the attempt to incite them sent a thrill of horror through the South. An uprising of slaves would have meant the massacre of whites. The majority of the people of the North condemned the conduct of Brown.

472. Presidential Election.— Four tickets were presented at the presidential election of 1860. The Democratic party had split in two. The Northern wing held that a territory could at any time decide for or against slav-

ery within its borders ; the Southern wing held that a territory could not decide until it formed a state constitution.

Election of
1860.

The Northern wing supported Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, and Herschel V. Johnson of Georgia ; the Southern wing supported John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, and Joseph H. Lane of Oregon. The Republicans had nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine. A fourth party, called the "Constitutional Union" party, made no declaration regarding slavery. It relied on the simple platform, "The Constitution, the Union, and the enforcement of the laws." Its nominees were John Bell of Tennessee, and Edward Everett of Massachusetts.

Lincoln and
Hamlin.

The Republican candidates, Lincoln and Hamlin, were elected. They received a majority of the electoral votes, though almost two thirds of the popular vote had gone against them.

Secession of
seven states.

473. Secession of Seven Southern States.—The South believed that the Republican party was sectional in character and hostile to Southern interests. It had long been a settled conviction in the South that the political success of such a party would leave only secession as a preventive of ruin. Therefore the state of South Carolina, in convention assembled, declared, December 20, 1860, that state no longer one of the United States. Secession ordinances were passed early in 1861 by other Southern states as follows: Mississippi, January 9; Florida, January 10; Alabama, January 11; Georgia, January 19; Louisiana, January 26; Texas, February 1. Upon the secession of the states, their respective Senators and Representatives, with but one or two exceptions, withdrew from Congress.

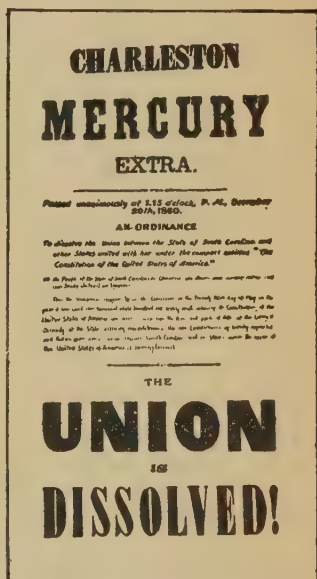
474. The Doctrine of Secession.—The argument of those who believed in the legal right of secession was that the

state had always been supreme; that the war for independence, though waged jointly by the states, was waged by them as distinct sovereignties, and that Great Britain acknowledged the independence of each state by name; furthermore, that when the states united under the Constitution, not one of them renounced its sovereignty, and each could withdraw from the compact whenever it saw fit to do so.

Each state
independent

475. The Progress of Secession. —

The common view taken of the Union at the time of the adoption of the Constitution was that it was a compact from which the states could withdraw. Indeed, if the right of a state to secede had then been denied, the Constitution could not have been adopted and the Union could not have been formed. An attempt was made in the convention that framed the Constitution to give to Congress power to use the military force of the general government to compel the obedience of a state. This attempt failed, because it was well understood that the state so attacked would probably quit the Union.¹ The right of withdrawal was so thoroughly recognized that few of the states considered its assertion necessary when they ratified the Constitution, yet as a precaution, Virginia, New York, and Rhode Island clearly proclaimed it. (See Sec. 306.)



A CHARLESTON BROADSIDE.

All states
believed they
could
withdraw.

¹ See Madison Papers, pp. 732, 914; Elliott's Debates, pp. 232-233.

In the belief that the influence of the South and West was injurious to their interests, New Englanders threatened secession for full twenty-five years after the adoption of the Constitution. Later there came a great change in the business interests of the North, including New England, and Northerners found it necessary to interpret the Constitution to suit their new conditions and allow the general government powers not expressly granted. So, because their larger population gave them greater power in Congress, protective tariffs multiplied mills and factories; bounties and subsidies developed commerce; and improvement of rivers and harbors made transportation easier. Through these benefits the Northern people in general came to look upon the government as the best on the face of the globe and to regard it as *national* in character, with the states subordinate. Otherwise the states could continue to separate from one another until there would be a number of petty states in the place of one great republic. To the North the Union became sacred and secession unlawful.¹

On the other side, the interests of the South had not changed since the framing of the Constitution. They were agricultural in 1860, just as they had been in 1787; hence the legislation that had so aided the Northerner had not helped the Southerner. Southern men complained that their section was burdened with taxes for the benefit of the other section, and insisted that the Constitution, which had been framed by the fathers to do equal justice to all, be strictly observed.

Then came the slavery question. The North believed that its control of the general government would be

¹ As late as 1844-1845, however, the Massachusetts legislature, in resolutions opposing the annexation of Texas, acknowledged the right of secession.

New
England.

A new in-
terpretation
of the
Constitution.

Fears of the
Union men.

The South
feels that her
interests are
at stake.

threatened by the admission of slaveholding states into the Union ; moreover, the belief that slavery was in itself wrong intensified the North's objection to it.

Growth of antislavery feeling at the North.

And now the South saw the Republican party triumphant—a party which had declared that slavery should be excluded from the territories in spite of the Supreme Court's decision that such exclusion was unconstitutional. Believing that her rights would not be secure under a government which would soon be in the control of the Republicans, the South thought that the time had come for forming a separate government.

The South prepares to act.

The underlying cause of the war between the sections was the conflict of Northern and Southern interests.

The cause of war.

476. Efforts at Compromise.—When the Southern states seceded, differing convictions as to the proper course to pursue divided the Northern people into three classes: (1) those who believed that states had a right to separate, and that the North should permit the seceding states to go in peace rather than attempt to coerce them by force; (2) those who denied the right of secession, but were willing to make a compromise of the differences threatening the Union; (3) those who both denied the right of secession and opposed any compromise. The first two classes, combined, constituted a majority; while the third class, the minority, was the Republican party.

Three opinions in the North.

Compromise bills, intended to bring peace to the distracted country, had been introduced into Congress. The most important one was proposed by Senator John J. Crittenden of Kentucky. It provided among other things: (1) for a constitutional amendment (the Dred Scott decision making an amendment necessary), extending the Missouri Compromise line to the eastern boundary of California; (2) for a less objectionable fugitive slave law. The former

Compromise bills.

provision was conciliatory to the South, and the latter to the North. The compromise might have averted war, but the Republicans in Congress refused to agree to it. Nor would they consent to submit the matter to a vote of the people.

Virginia, hoping to save the Union, as once before it had done when the old Confederation was in danger of breaking up, invited the other states to join in a peace conference. In response, delegates from twenty-one states met in Washington, February 4-27, 1861, the venerable ex-President Tyler presiding. The recommendations of the conference, however, were not accepted by Congress.

477. Admission of Kansas. — After the withdrawal of the representatives of the seceding states, Congress admitted Kansas, the thirty-fourth state. The constitution of Kansas forbade slavery. At the same time the territories of Colorado, Nevada, and Dakota were organized.

478. The *Star of the West*. — President Buchanan did nothing to hinder the secession of the Southern states. He held that, while a state had no right to secede, the Federal government had no right to force it to remain in the Union. Commissioners from South Carolina waited upon the President to negotiate for the transfer of forts and other Federal property within the state on peaceable and equitable terms, but the mission failed.

Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, was garrisoned by a small force of United States soldiers. South Carolina made no attempt to take the fort; but when Buchanan dispatched a vessel, the *Star of the West*, with provisions and reinforcements for its relief, the state felt justified in active resistance. Militia fired upon the vessel when it appeared at Charleston harbor, compelling it to retire.

479. The Confederate States of America. — On February 4, 1861, delegates from six of the seceding states met

Compromises fail in Congress.

A peace conference.

The thirty-fourth state, 1861.

Buchanan's view.

Commissioners from South Carolina.

First guns, Jan. 9, 1861.



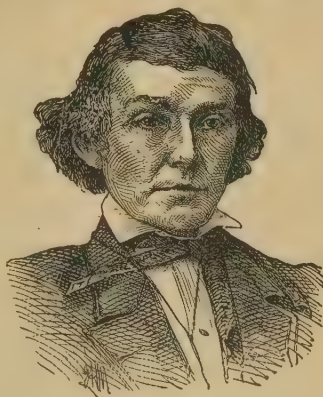
JEFFERSON DAVIS



in Montgomery, Alabama, to organize a government.¹ On February 8 a temporary Constitution for the "Confederate States of America" was adopted. Jefferson Davis² of Mississippi was elected President and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia, Vice President. Soon afterward a permanent Constitution was adopted.

The Confederate Constitution was similar in most respects to the Federal Constitution, though there were some decided differences. The terms of President and Vice President were fixed at six years, and these officers were ineligible to reelection. Internal improvements at the expense of the general government, protective tariffs, and bounties were forbidden.

Thus when Lincoln was inaugurated there were two governments where before there had been only one. The failure of all attempts to bring



The
Confederate
States.

The
Confederate
Constitution
1861.

ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON STEPHENS was born near Crawfordville, Georgia, February 11, 1812; died at Atlanta, March 4, 1883. He was graduated from the University of Georgia. Prior to the Civil War he served in Congress as a Representative from Georgia for sixteen consecutive years. Directly after the war he was elected United States Senator, but was not seated; later he was elected to Congress, serving nine years. At the time of his death he was governor of Georgia. Stephens had a very weak body but a giant intellect.

¹ Representatives from Texas did not arrive until later.

² JEFFERSON DAVIS was born in that part of Christian County, Kentucky, which now forms Todd County, June 3, 1808; died at New Orleans, December 6, 1889. He was graduated at West Point, but after serving a few years on the frontier as a lieutenant, he resigned from the army and settled in Mississippi, where he became a cotton planter. He was elected to Congress from Mississippi, but resigned to serve in the Mexican War as colonel of a Mississippi regiment. He acted with great gallantry in every battle in which

the sections together through a compromise caused keen regret. Excitement was intense throughout the country.

All forts in the seceding states that could be peaceably taken were occupied for the Confederacy. Fort Sumter at Charleston, Fort Pickens at Pensacola, and the forts near Key West contained small Federal garrisons. wishing to avoid war, the Confederates did not seize these forts, but relied upon securing them through negotiation.

The
Confederates
wish a
peaceful
separation.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 468. THE DRED SCOTT DECISION. — Two important principles.
- 469. THE ATLANTIC CABLE.
- 470. MINNESOTA AND OREGON ADMITTED. — Kansas debarred.
- 471. JOHN BROWN AT HARPER'S FERRY. — Purpose; plan; defeat; death.
- 472. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Four tickets; Lincoln and Hamlin.
- 473-475. SECESSION. — Seven states leave Union; the doctrine of secession; supremacy of the state; progress of secession; first view of the Constitution; New England and secession; rise of the national idea; Southern interests; the final rupture; real cause of the Civil War.
- 476. EFFORTS AT COMPROMISE. — Three classes in North; Crittenden's compromise; Virginia's peace conference.
- 477. ADMISSION OF KANSAS.
- 478. THE STAR OF THE WEST.
- 479. THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA.



FORT SUMTER.

he was engaged, and at Buena Vista was severely wounded. He was United States Senator from Mississippi; served as Secretary of War under Pierce; and once more entered the Senate, where he remained until Mississippi seceded. On the death of Calhoun the mantle of leadership of the states' rights party in the South fell upon Davis, whose talents early made him conspicuous. He was unanimously chosen to serve at the head of the Confederacy. His "military skill, administrative capacity, and unwearied activity," combined with his personal disinterestedness and patience under suffering, made him the fitting leader of a cause which rose and fell in the smoke of battle.

PART VII.—THE CIVIL WAR

1861-1865

CHAPTER XXXVIII

FIRST YEAR OF THE CIVIL WAR (1861)

(ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN,¹ SIXTEENTH
PRESIDENT)

480. **Lincoln's Inauguration.** — The excitement and anxiety of the time are evident from the fact that unusual precautions were taken to prevent the assassination of

1861

Lincoln's
inauguration

¹ ABRAHAM LINCOLN was born in a cabin in Hardin (now Larue) County, Kentucky. February 12, 1809; died at Washington, April 15, 1865. As a child he moved with his father to Indiana and later to Illinois. Reared in extreme poverty, the boy had a hard struggle in what was then a wilderness. He went to school very little, but taught himself to read and cipher by the firelight after working at odd jobs by day. The few books that he could get he read over and over. Lincoln's early attempts at making a livelihood were not successful. He followed one business and then another. His neighbors appreciated his genuine worth, however, and elected him, while a young man, to the Illinois legislature. During his service in the legislature he was admitted to the bar, and his rapid rise in the legal profession showed that he had at last found the calling for which he was suited. He sat one term in Congress as a Whig. In 1858, as Republican candidate for the United States Senate, he canvassed his state with his opponent, Stephen A. Douglas, and although defeated, attracted the attention of the country by his able speeches. Though he had had no advantages in youth and came to the Presidency with little experience in statecraft, yet he successfully guided the republic through its most perilous period, because his strong mind was balanced by a heart full of charity and a soul full of justice. The passing of time serves but to make more prominent the greatness of the man.

1861

the new President. Lincoln entered Washington secretly and was inaugurated under the protection of a military guard.

The President declares he will uphold the authority of the general government in all the states.

481. Announcement of Lincoln's Policy.—In his inaugural address Lincoln denied the right of secession, and announced that he would “hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government, and collect the duties and imports.” Now that compromise had failed, and the only question was whether the Union should be allowed to divide, the people of the North heartily approved of Lincoln’s announcement. On the other hand, the South, believing in its right to a separate government, regarded Lincoln’s words as equivalent to a declaration of war; the Federal government could not continue to hold Southern forts and to collect duties in the South except through force of arms.

Federal authorities refuse to recognize Confederate commissioners.

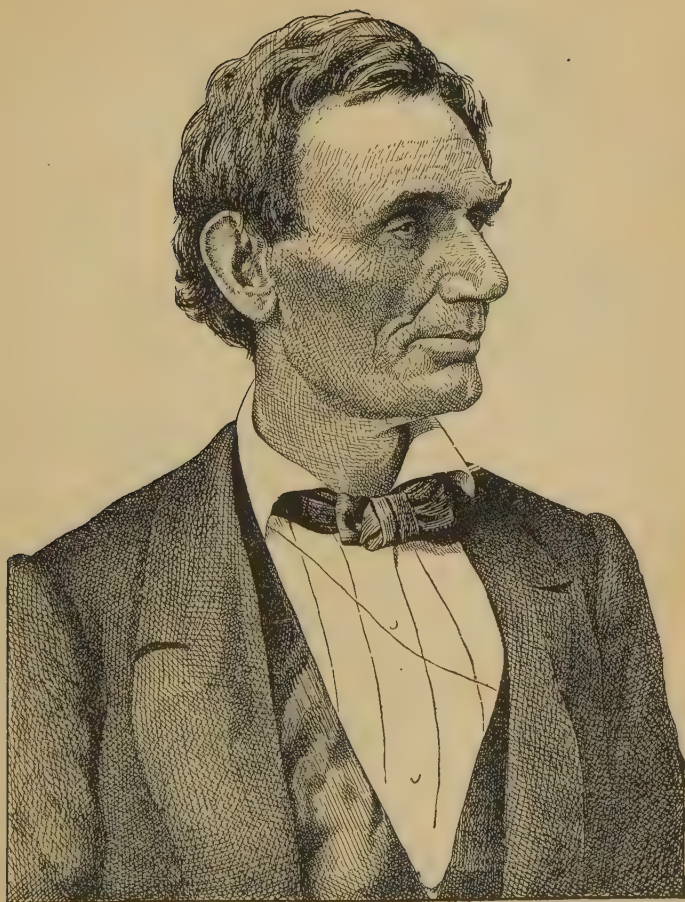
The Confederacy, hoping for peace, had sent commissioners to Washington to effect a transfer of forts and all other public property within its borders, and an adjustment of the public debt, but the mission failed. The Federal authorities, not recognizing the Confederate government as legal, of course could not recognize its commissioners.

Anderson in Fort Sumter.

482. The Fall of Sumter.—Major Robert Anderson, of the United States army, occupied Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor with a command numbering less than one hundred. The Confederates covered the fort with the guns of the other forts in the harbor and of the batteries they had erected, yet peace was unbroken so long as there was hope of a quiet evacuation of Fort Sumter.

Beauregard demands the surrender of Fort Sumter, and opens fire.

Early in April a Federal fleet was ordered to the relief of Major Anderson, and General P. G. T. Beauregard, commanding the Confederate forces at Charleston, summoned him to surrender. Anderson declined, and on April 12



A. Lincoln

After a photograph taken in 1860.

the Confederates opened fire upon the fort with many guns. Sumter returned the fire, but the Federal fleet, which stood outside the harbor, took no part in the contest. On the afternoon of the second day, when the fort was on fire from shells, Major Anderson surrendered. His command was allowed to march out with the honors of war. Despite the heavy cannonade, not a man on either side had been killed or seriously injured. Thus with a bloodless encounter began one of the bloodiest wars of history.

1861



P. G. T. BEAUREGARD.

Fort Sumter
surrenders,
April 13.

483. Effect upon the Country.—The fall of Sumter acted like an electric shock. Everybody knew that war had begun. The North, feeling that the government had been attacked, rallied to the cause of the Union; the South, believing that defense of Southern rights had become necessary, sprang to the support of the Confederacy. President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand militia, and many more than that number responded. President Davis asked for volunteers, and Southerners poured into the Confederate army. American faced American in fratricidal strife, each with faith in the justness of his cause.

The war
feeling in
the North.
In the South

Great armies
called for.

484. Secession of Four Other States.—Lincoln's call for troops caused four other states to withdraw. Rather than join in war waged to force the Confederate States back into the Union, Virginia seceded April 17; Arkansas, May 6; North Carolina, May 20; Tennessee, June 8. These states immediately joined the Confederacy. The

Other states
secede.

1861

Confederate
capital
moved to
Richmond.

Border slave
states held to
the Union.

They wish to
be neutral.

Confederate capital was removed from Montgomery to Richmond.

485. The Border States. — The feeling in favor of secession had never been very strong in Delaware. In Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, where it had many supporters, unionists and secessionists struggled for control; in these states the Union influence at length prevailed. Yet, although they did not secede, the ties binding them to the South were close, and they attempted to hold a neutral position in the war.

Neutrality was impossible. In order to reach Washington, Federal troops came into Maryland; and the state was held fast to the Union. Missouri quickly filled with hostile camps. After some sharp fighting a bloody battle took place at Wilson's Creek, in which the Confederates were victorious. But by autumn the Confederates had been compelled to retire before a superior Federal army, and had fallen back to the extreme southern part of the state, leaving Missouri to the control of the Federals. In the fall some skirmishing occurred in Kentucky without decided results, and the year ended with both armies occupying the state.

With neutrality at an end, the people of Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri were divided into two fierce factions, brother fighting against brother. Though the majority held to the Union, many men from these states became soldiers in the Confederate army.

486. Western Virginia. — The inhabitants of Virginia west of the mountains were opposed to secession, and seeing the state withdraw from the Union, they took steps to uphold the Federal government. A governor, legislature, and delegation to Congress were elected. The new government called itself the government of the state of Vir-

Battle of
Wilson's
Creek,
Aug. 10.

The
beginning
of West
Virginia.



MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
1861

The heavy black line shows the greatest
extent of territory held by the Confederacy.

KEY WEST

ginia, and claimed to have taken the place of the state government that had gone into the Confederacy. Its delegation was admitted to seats in the Federal Congress as Senators and Representatives from Virginia. To aid the inhabitants in holding this section for the Union, General George B. McClellan entered western Virginia with twenty thousand troops. Against this force the Confederates could bring only five thousand,¹ and after some months of fighting abandoned western Virginia.

487. Unequalness of the Contest. — From the very outset the contest between the North and South was unequal, and so it continued until the end of the war. The population of the North was in round numbers twenty-two millions. The South had nine millions, of which three and a half millions were slaves. Thus, with respect to population from which an army could be drawn, the North was four times as great as the South.²

¹ For convenience only approximate figures will be used in giving the strength of armies and their losses in battle.

² Census of 1860. The comparison is made between the population of the non-seceding states and that of the seceding states. The number of men that

1861



George B.
McClellan.

GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

GEORGE BRINTON MCCLELLAN was born at Philadelphia, December 3, 1826; died in Orange, New Jersey, October 29, 1885. He graduated at West Point, and served with distinction in the Mexican War as a lieutenant. He was also prominent in the Civil War. McClellan's skill in organizing a great army was unsurpassed and his military plans were excellent, but the Civil War was a war of quick moving armies, and the public generally thought him too slow in carrying out his plans. His officers and soldiers, however, had great confidence in him and were very much attached to him. They called him "Little Mac." In 1864 McClellan was the unsuccessful candidate of the Democrats for the Presidency. In 1877 he was elected Governor of New Jersey.

Population
of the
respective
sections.

1861
Munitions. Of muskets and rifles the armories of the North contained nearly three times the number in the armories of the South. Even after resorting to country rifles and shot-guns, the Confederacy was long unable to provide enough small arms. All foundries for the manufacture of arms, except one for making cannon, and all except two powder mills, were in the Northern states.

Supplies. The North had varied industries. Its farms raised food in abundance, and its factories could make all materials needed for war. The South planted cotton and tobacco, and did not in times of peace raise food sufficient for its inhabitants, but bought much from the North and Europe.

Treasury. The Union had a treasury and a navy; the Confederacy had neither. The Union could add to its resources by purchases from Europe, but the blockade of the coast of the Confederacy, begun by the Federal government soon after the war commenced, closed Southern ports to trade. Not only did the blockade prevent the Confederacy from securing arms from abroad, but it shut out some of the necessities of life, and many commodities became very scarce.

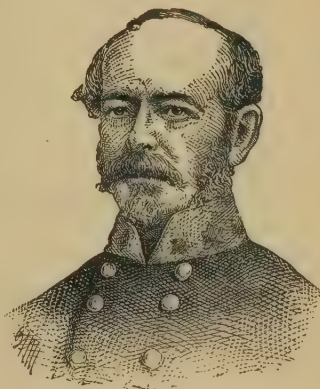
488. Nature of the Contest. — The effort of the Southern states to withdraw, and of the North to prevent them, made the war an offensive one on the part of the North, and a defensive one on the part of the South. This was almost the only thing in the South's favor; yet it meant much, because fighting on the defensive and on its own ground is of great advantage to an army.

The South on the defensive. The Confederacy set to work to make arms and ammunition, blankets, saddles, harness, and other things needed went into the Confederate army from Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri was nearly, if not quite, balanced by the number that joined the Union army from western Virginia, east Tennessee, and other parts of the South.

in war; and while it was never able to equip its army properly, the results accomplished were great.

489. First Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas. — Neither side believed that the war would last more than a few months. The North hoped to deal the Confederate army a crushing blow, then seize Richmond, and bring the war to a speedy close. The South thought that after she had gained a victory or two the North would abandon the contest. Federal armies were assembled on the borders of Virginia, and Confederate troops were hurried to the defense of the state. Of the two main forces of the Union army in the east, one was in front of Washington, under command of General Irvin McDowell, and the other on the upper Potomac in the Shenandoah valley, under General Robert Patterson. The former force consisted of about forty-five thousand men, and the latter of about twenty thousand.

To oppose McDowell's advance the Confederates had a force, under General Beauregard, on Bull Run, near Manassas, Virginia, and about twenty-five miles southwest from Washington. To oppose Patterson they had a force in the Shenandoah valley under General Joseph E. Johnston.



JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.

JOSEPH EGGLESTON JOHNSTON was born near Farmville, Virginia, February 3, 1807; died at Washington, D.C., March 21, 1891. He graduated at West Point and saw much active service against the Indians. In the Mexican War he was a captain, but was brevetted for bravery. When he resigned from the old army to serve the Confederacy he had risen to the position of quartermaster-general. He is very generally regarded as, next to Lee, the ablest general of the Confederate army. During the different wars in which he was engaged he was wounded ten times. After the Civil War he represented Virginia in Congress.

1862

"On to Richmond,"
July.

The
beginning of
the Army of
the Potomac

The
beginning of
the Army
of Northern
Virginia.

1861

Neither Beauregard's army nor Johnston's was more than half as strong as the army it confronted.

The Federals
advance.

McDowell, leaving enough troops to protect Washington, advanced with thirty thousand men to attack Beauregard. Patterson was instructed to hold Johnston in the valley so as to prevent his joining forces with Beauregard. But Johnston slipped away from his antagonist, and with the greater portion of his army reached Beauregard's camp shortly before the battle began.

The first
battle of
Manassas,
July 21.

On Sunday, July 21, the armies grappled in a life-and-death encounter. The Confederate front was driven back, but was strengthened and the Federals were held in check. Then the remainder of Johnston's army came upon the field, making the strength of the combatants now about equal. The newly arrived Confederate troops, together with those already engaged, made an impetuous charge upon the Federals, and routed them.

The Federals
routed.

The retreat of the Federals became a panic, many of them fleeing until they reached Washington. The loss of the Union army in killed, wounded, and missing was about three thousand; the Confederate loss about two thousand. In the first of the battle, when the Confederates were being driven back, the incident occurred that gave the name of "Stonewall" to Thomas J. Jackson, a Confederate general soon to become famous.¹

"Stonewall"
Jackson.

490. Effect of the Battle. — The dismay of the North in consequence of the defeat was only for the moment. Con-

¹ Jackson's troops occupied a rear line, presenting an unbroken front with Jackson at their head. "They are beating us back," exclaimed General Bee. "Well, sir," calmly replied Jackson, "we will give them the bayonet." Turning to the retreating soldiers, Bee called out, "There's Jackson standing like a stone wall." Immediately the cry passed from man to man, "Stonewall Jackson! Stonewall Jackson!" The Confederates rallied under the magic name — a name by which Jackson has ever since been known the world over.

gress had already authorized the enlistment of an army of half a million men, and voted an immense appropriation for the expenses of the war. The Northern people, seeing now that a tremendous war was on their hands, gave the Federal government enthusiastic support. General McClellan, who had conducted the campaign in western Virginia, was appointed to the chief command of the Union armies.

In the South the effect of the battle was to give undue confidence. The people believed the Southern army would speedily bring the war to a successful conclusion; so, for a time, there was great joy and little effort. But the leaders knew better, and they made ready as well as they might for a continued struggle.

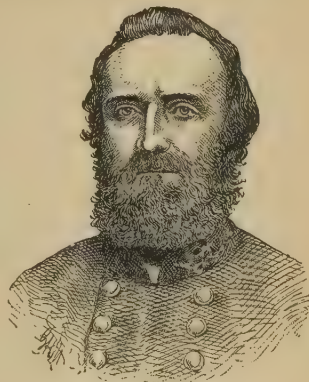
The defeat at Bull Run had ended the first advance upon Richmond. McClellan gave the rest of the year to organizing and equipping thoroughly under his command.

491. The Trent Affair. — As the South had always supplied Europe with cotton and tobacco, Southerners hoped that the distress caused by the cutting off of these staples

1861

The North
aroused.

General
McClellan
commander
in-chief.



"STONEWALL" JACKSON.

THOMAS JONATHAN JACKSON was born at Clarksburg, Virginia (now West Virginia), January 21, 1824; died near the battlefield of Chancellorsville, Va., May 10, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1846, and served as a lieutenant in the war with Mexico. In 1851 he became a professor in the Virginia Military Institute at Lexington. At the beginning of the Civil War he received a colonel's commission in the Confederate army and was placed in command of Harper's Ferry. He rose rapidly in rank—receiving the grades of brigadier-general, major-general, and lieutenant-general. His Valley campaign in May and June, 1862, has frequently been likened to Bonaparte's campaign in Italy. "Stonewall" Jackson is regarded as Lee's greatest lieutenant.

Preparing for
a long war.

South hopes
for European
recognition.

1861

Sends commissioners to Great Britain and France.

would make the European governments recognize the Confederacy, and break the blockade. Accordingly, James M. Mason of Virginia, and John Slidell of Louisiana, were appointed commissioners of the Confederate government to Great Britain and France respectively.

Mason and Slidell seized by Captain Wilkes of the *San Jacinto*.

The commissioners passed the blockade in the fall of 1861 and reached Cuba, where they took passage for England on the British mail ship *Trent*. On November 8 the United States war ship *San Jacinto*, commanded by Captain Wilkes, forcibly overhauled the British vessel and carried off Mason and Slidell. The North applauded Captain Wilkes. But it was a serious matter to attack and board a vessel belonging to a neutral nation. To put a stop to such acts, America had fought the War of 1812.

The United States government releases Mason and Slidell.

Great Britain demanded the release of the prisoners, in the meantime preparing for war in case the demand was not complied with. The United States government, recognizing that a wrong act had been committed, delivered Mason and Slidell to Great Britain, and the danger of a foreign war was averted.

What the North fought for.

492. Lincoln's Views of the Slavery Question.—The North was fighting to prevent the division of the Union, and not for the abolition of slavery. Lincoln declared in his inaugural address: "I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so; and I have no inclination to do so."

Abolitionists press their opportunity.

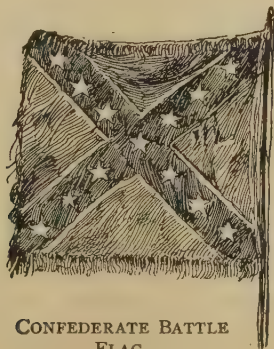
No sooner had the war begun, however, than the pressure upon Congress by the abolitionists became great. The occasion appeared to them favorable for the forcible extinction of slavery. As a war measure, Congress passed a law declaring that slaves used by the Confederates in carrying on the war would be confiscated.

493. Results of the Year.—The first year of the war ended with little advantage to either side. The Confederates had won the only great battle; but the North had succeeded in holding for the Union the border states and western Virginia.

1861

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

480. LINCOLN INAUGURATED.
481. HIS POLICY.—Denial of right of secession; Confederate commissioners.
482. FALL OF SUMTER.
483. EFFECT ON COUNTRY.—Call for troops.
484. FOUR MORE STATES SECEDE.
485. THE BORDER STATES.—Attempted neutrality.
486. WESTERN VIRGINIA.
487-488. COMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF NORTH AND SOUTH.—Population; equipment; industries; resources; nature of contest.
489-490. FIRST BATTLE OF BULL RUN, OR MANASSAS.—Plan of Northern leaders; relative numbers and position of opposing forces; preliminary movements; the battle; result; effect on North; on South.
491. THE "TRENT" AFFAIR.—Mason and Slidell.
492. LINCOLN'S VIEW OF THE SLAVERY QUESTION.—Slaves declared contraband.
493. RESULTS OF THE YEAR.



CONFEDERATE BATTLE
FLAG.

CHAPTER XXXIX

SECOND YEAR OF THE CIVIL WAR (1862)

(ADMINISTRATION OF LINCOLN, *continued*)

1862

Respective
numbers.

494. The Armies.—At the beginning of 1862 the Union army numbered six hundred thousand soldiers; the Confederates only half that number. The Confederate line of defense extended along the borders of Virginia, through southern Kentucky and northern Tennessee, and across the Mississippi into southern Missouri.

To open the
Mississippi.

495. Federal Plan of Campaign.—The Federal plan of campaign for the Eastern army had for its purpose the capture of Richmond. For the Western armies, the campaign was designed to get control of the Mississippi, now strongly fortified by the Confederates. The opening of the Mississippi would cut the Confederacy in two, and would shut off from the Confederate armies the large supplies, especially of beef, which came from Texas and elsewhere west of the river.

FIRST HALF OF THE YEAR IN THE WEST

The hostile
forces in
Tennessee.

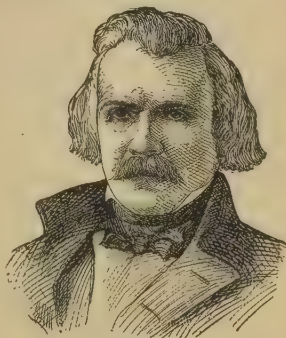
496. Situation in the West.—Operations began first in the West, where the Confederate main line, under General Albert Sidney Johnston, extended from Bowling Green, Kentucky, to Columbus, in the same state, on the Mississippi. There were two Union armies opposing this line: one under General Don Carlos Buell, with headquar

ters at Louisville, and the other under General Henry W. Halleck, with headquarters at St. Louis.

497. Fall of Forts Henry and Donelson. — Early in February the Union forces advanced against Forts Henry and

The Federal advance.

Donelson, the center of the Confederate line. Though Fort Henry was on the Tennessee River, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, they were but twelve miles apart, having been built where the rivers run near each other, but a short distance south of the Kentucky boundary. General Ulysses S. Grant, who was serving under Halleck, was in command of the movement.



ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON.

A fleet of gunboats, partly iron-clad, which supported Grant's forces, quickly took Fort Henry, its small garrison having previously escaped to Fort Donelson. Around the latter fort Grant threw his army, now about twenty-five thousand men. Although the fort had been reënforced from Johnston's army, yet the siege lasted but four days. The Confederates made a gallant attempt to break through the heavy lines in front of them, but failed. Hemmed in by superior numbers, they surrendered (February 16).

Fort Henry taken.

498. Results of the Fall of Donelson. — The fall of Donelson was a great disaster to the Confederates. They could no longer hold the remainder of their line, and a new line was formed farther southward, extending from middle Tennessee through the borders of Alabama and Mississippi. Nashville, thus given up, was occupied by the army under Buell.

Fort Donelson besieged.

Fort Donelson surrendered Feb. 16.

The whole Confederate line falls back.

1862

Grant's army
at Pittsburg
Landing.

Albert
Sidney
Johnston at
Corinth.

The
Confederates
attack Grant.

Grant's
defeat.

Albert
Sidney
Johnston
killed.

Buell
reënforces
Grant.

Beauregard
forced back.

499. Battle of Shiloh.—The army that had captured Donelson, known as the Army of the Tennessee, moved in transports up the Tennessee River, accompanied by the fleet of gunboats. The troops disembarked at Pittsburg Landing, in southwestern Tennessee, and camped near Shiloh Church, about two miles from the river. There Grant waited for Buell and his army from Nashville, before pushing farther southward into the Confederacy.

The main body of the Confederates was at Corinth, Mississippi, about twenty miles distant, General Albert Sidney

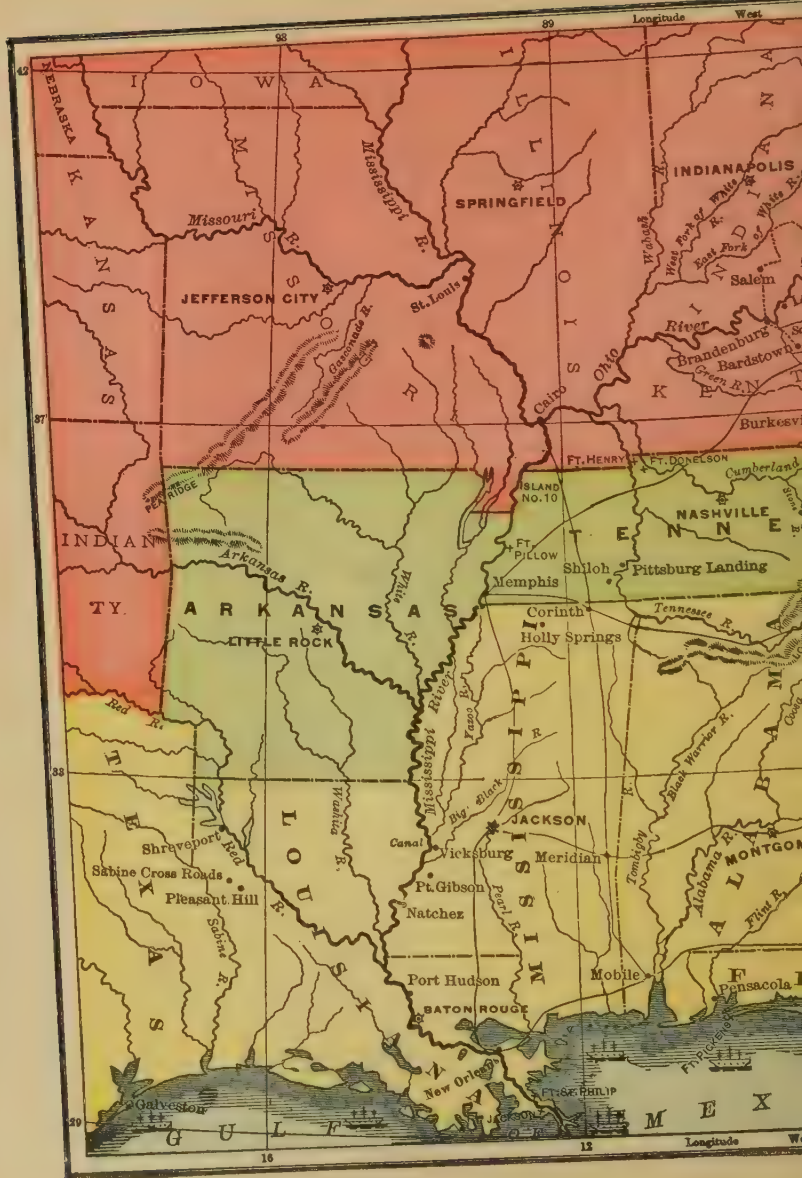
Johnston commanding. If the Confederates could defeat Grant before Buell could join him, and then defeat Buell, the ground lost by the fall of Donelson might be regained. Accordingly, on the morning of Sunday, April 6, they fell with a terrible onslaught upon Grant's army at Shiloh. The Federals, though unprepared for the attack, resisted stubbornly; but by afternoon the greater part of them had



DON CARLOS BUELL.

been driven to the landing to the protection of the gunboats. At the moment when victory seemed assured, the Southerners lost their leader, General Johnston, and General Beauregard succeeded to the command.

Up to this time the Confederates had been somewhat the greater in numbers; but in the afternoon and night Buell's army reached the field. The arrival of reënforcements had saved Grant's army. At the end of the second day's battle the Confederates retreated to





Corinth. This was the severest battle that had yet taken place.

1862

500. Second Line of the Confederates Broken. — After the battle of Shiloh, Halleck in person took command of the Federal army, which was soon increased to one hundred thousand men. He advanced cautiously upon Corinth, from which position Beauregard, who had a force of only fifty thousand men, fell back to Tupelo, Mississippi. The taking of Corinth was another disaster to the Confederates; for it not only broke their second line of defense, but cut the railroad system between the East and the West, over which they had moved troops and supplies.

Halleck
advances to
Corinth.

Beauregard
falls back to
Tupelo.

501. On the Mississippi. — All the forts above Memphis had fallen, and as the Federal army was now in the rear of the city, it could not be held. Its surrender was hastened by Federal gunboats which descended the Mississippi, and on June 6 overcame the Confederate fleet that guarded the city on the river front.

Before the fall of Memphis, Commodore David G. Farragut had entered the mouth of the Mississippi, and on April 29 had taken formal possession of New Orleans after running past Forts Phillips and Jackson, and destroying an inferior Confederate fleet. The Mississippi was not yet entirely open to the Federals, for the Confederates still held the river from Vicksburg to Port Hudson, a distance of more than two hundred miles.



DAVID G. FARRAGUT

Battle of
gunboats at
Memphis,
June 6.

New Orleans
taken,
April 29.

1862

Pea Ridge,
March 7-8.

502. Beyond the Mississippi. — Meanwhile, March 7 and 8, a severe battle had been fought at Pea Ridge in Arkansas, the Confederates retreating from the field. Afterward the Confederates reduced their forces in Arkansas in order to strengthen their armies east of the Mississippi, and the Federals were able to secure control of the northern part of the state before the end of the year.

FIRST HALF OF THE YEAR IN THE EAST

The Virginia
armies.

503. The Peninsular Campaign. — While success attended the Union army in the West, it favored the Confederates in the East. McClellan's "Army of the Potomac," in front of Washington, was three times as great as the Confederate army at Manassas under Joseph E. Johnston. For months the two armies were separated by only a few miles, the Confederates concealing their weakness by placing "Quaker guns," logs of wood shaped like cannon, on their intrenchments.

McClellan
decides to
advance
by the
Peninsula.

McClellan decided that the best line of advance against Richmond was up the Peninsula, as the part of Virginia between the York and James rivers is called. Early in April he landed more than one hundred thousand men near the mouth of the York River; but his prudence was extreme, and the Confederate general, J. B. Magruder, with a force of only eleven thousand, held the Federals in check at Yorktown until Johnston brought up his army. The Confederates were still so greatly outnumbered that Johnston retired up the Peninsula, McClellan following him. At Williamsburg the Federals were repulsed, but McClellan continued to advance, and at length took position within seven miles of Richmond. With one hundred thousand soldiers he was now within sight of the church

McClellan's
advance
checked by
Magruder.
Yorktown
evacuated,
May 4.
Battle of
Williams-
burg, May 5.
"On to
Richmond."

steeple of the Confederate capital. Johnston stood between him and the city with only sixty-three thousand.

The Confederates made a vigorous attack on May 31 at Seven Pines. On June 1 the battle was renewed. In these engagements neither side gained any great advantage. General Johnston was wounded, and General Robert E. Lee¹ was placed in command of the Confederate army. McClellan begged for reënforcements, and McDowell's army of forty thousand men was ordered to join him.

504. Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley.—With only fifteen thousand men, "Stonewall" Jackson was in the eastern part of the Shenandoah Valley, opposed by two Federal armies, one commanded by General Frémont and the other by General Banks, either much greater than his own.

Early in May, Jackson advanced rapidly across the Valley, and suddenly fell upon and defeated a detachment of Frémont's army at McDowell. Hardly resting his men, he followed up his victory by attacking and routing part of Banks's army at Front Royal. There was now consternation in Washington, for it was feared that Jackson would capture the city. The militia of some of the Northern states were called out; the orders for McDowell to reën-

1862

Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, May 31, June 1.

Johnston wounded.

R. E. Lee in command.

Jackson's desperate condition.

Jackson advances.

Defeats Milroy and Schenck, May 8.
Routs Kenly May 20.

Fears for the capital.

¹ ROBERT EDWARD LEE, son of General Henry Lee ("Light Horse Harry" of the Revolutionary War), was born at Stratford, Westmoreland County, Virginia, January 19, 1807; died at Lexington, Virginia, October 12, 1870. He graduated at West Point in 1829. For his distinguished services in the Mexican War he was three times brevetted. From 1852 to 1855 he was superintendent of the United States Military Academy at West Point. When the Second Cavalry was formed, Lee became its lieutenant-colonel. Three days after Virginia seceded, Colonel Lee resigned from the United States army, and was at once appointed to command the troops of his native state. In the Civil War his fame rose high; it is safe to say that he is America's greatest general. From 1865 until his death he was president of Washington College, now Washington and Lee University. The anniversary of his birth is observed throughout the South.

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force McClellan were countermanded, and his army was hurried to the defense of the capital. But it was no part of the Confederate plan for Jackson to attempt the capture of Washington. With his small force he could not have held the city, even if he had taken it. He continued his work in the Valley, defeating another detachment of Banks's army at Newtown, and on the very next day routing the main body at Winchester and driving it across the Potomac.

Jackson
defeats
Banks,
May 24-25.

General Shields was sent into the Valley with a division from McDowell's army to coöperate with Frémont for the purpose of crushing Jackson. Before they could make a junction, Jackson defeated Frémont at Cross Keys on June 8, and turning, defeated Shields at Port Republic on the next day. Then he came out of the Valley and joined Lee in time to take part in the campaign against McClellan. Within a month Jackson had marched four hundred miles, fought six battles and many skirmishes, captured thousands of prisoners and large amounts of supplies; he had defeated three armies, and had prevented McDowell from joining forces with McClellan.¹

Defeats
Frémont,
June 8.

Defeats
Shields,
June 9.

Jackson
unites with
Lee.

505. The Seven Days' Battles before Richmond. — Lee's army was increased to about eighty thousand, while McClellan now had one hundred and five thousand. On June 26 Lee struck McClellan's army at Mechanicsville, and an indecisive battle was fought. The Federals withdrew to Gaines's Mill and Cold Harbor, where, on the next day, Lee defeated them. McClellan abandoned his lines in front of Richmond and retired toward the James River.

Lee takes
the offensive.
Mechanics-
ville, June 26.

Gaines's
Mill,
June 27.

¹ While Lee was making preparations to attack, General J. E. B. Stuart, a Confederate cavalry leader, with only fifteen hundred men, made a daring ride entirely around McClellan's army, capturing prisoners and supplies and bringing Lee valuable information regarding his opponent.



ROBERT E. LEE.

Lee followed and battles occurred at Savage Station, Frazier's Farm, and Malvern Hill.

1862

Savage
Station,
June 29.
Frazier's
Farm,
June 30.
Malvern
Hill, July 2.

The last-named battle, fought on July 1 near the bank of the James, was most stubbornly contested. The Confederates were repulsed, but in the night McClellan gave up the field and marched down the river to Harrison's Landing, where he was under the protection of a strong fleet. Thus failed the Federal campaign on the Peninsula.

Gloom set in at the North, but there was no intention of giving up the contest. Lincoln called for three hundred thousand more troops. He took General Halleck from the West and made him general in chief of all the Union forces. Lee's success in this campaign gave his soldiers such confidence in him that they believed him invincible. In the seven days of fighting the Union loss was sixteen thousand; the Confederate loss twenty thousand.

Losses.

LATTER HALF OF THE YEAR IN THE WEST

506. The Kentucky Campaign. — Before Halleck's promotion, and while he was still at Corinth, he had ordered Buell to move against Chattanooga. That place was important because it was the point from which railroads ran northeastward to Richmond, by way of Knoxville, and southeastward to Savannah and Charleston, by way of Atlanta.

The
importance
of
Chattanooga.

General Braxton Bragg, who had been placed in command of the Confederate army on account of the sickness of Beauregard, hurried to Chattanooga and kept Buell from capturing it. The Confederate commander then endeavored to carry the war beyond the borders of the Confederacy. Late in August he marched into Kentucky, where General E. Kirby Smith with a Confederate force

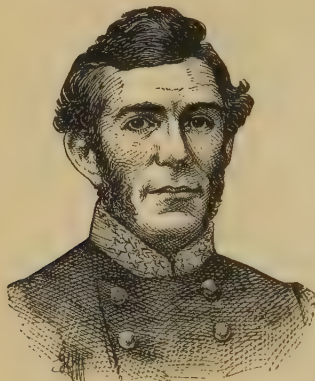
Bragg in
command at
Chattanooga.

Bragg
advances.

1862

Kirby Smith
advances into
Kentucky.

from Knoxville had moved in advance. Smith won a battle at Richmond, Kentucky, and caused great alarm to both Louisville and Cincinnati.



BRAXTON BRAGG.

Battle of
Perryville,
Oct. 8.

Bragg
retires to
Chattanooga.

Meanwhile Buell also had marched into Kentucky; he outstripped Bragg, and occupied Louisville. Then, being so heavily reënforced that his army amounted to one hundred thousand, he turned upon Bragg. The armies fought a battle at Perryville, Kentucky, on October 8. At night Bragg fell back on account of inferior numbers. Even when Smith afterward joined him, his army

was much smaller than Buell's; he therefore withdrew from Kentucky and reoccupied Chattanooga.

Beyond obtaining a large quantity of supplies, his campaign had accomplished nothing. The Confederates had hoped that Kentuckians would join the army in large numbers, and that the campaign would compel Grant, who with the Army of the Tennessee had been left in western Tennessee and northern Mississippi, to release his hold upon that section; but neither result followed.

507. Battle of Corinth.—The Confederate force which had been left by Bragg in northern Mississippi was under command of Generals Earl Van Dorn and Sterling Price. On October 3 and 4 they attacked Corinth, the key to the Federal position, which was under the immediate command of General William S. Rosecrans, who was serving under Grant. The Confederates charged with desperate valor upon the Federal works, but were driven back with

Confederate
repulse at
Corinth,
Oct. 3-4.

great losses and retreated to Holly Springs. Grant had not only held tenaciously to the region under his command, but he had been able to reënforce Buell, while Van Dorn and Price could give no help to Bragg.

1862

508. Unsuccessful Attempt upon Vicksburg. — Toward the end of the year, Grant marched the Army of the Tennessee through the state of Mississippi for the purpose of taking Vicksburg, and ordered a force under General William T. Sherman to descend the Mississippi River to coöperate in the movement. Grant collected supplies for his Vicksburg expedition at Holly Springs, Mississippi; but by a quick dash the Confederate cavalry, under General Van Dorn, destroyed them, while another body of Confederate cavalry, led by General Nathan B. Forrest, cut the railroad in Grant's rear. Grant's army, being without supplies and without a road over which to get any, was compelled to retreat. Sherman's command was defeated at Chickasaw Bayou by a much smaller Confederate force under General Stephen D. Lee, and was also compelled to retreat. So Vicksburg was still held by the Confederates.

Grant's plans
for taking
Vicksburg.



WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN was born at Lancaster, Ohio, February 8, 1820; died in New York, February 14, 1891. He graduated at West Point in 1840, and served in the war against the Seminole Indians. In the Civil War Sherman's services to the Union were second only to those of Grant, whom he succeeded in command of the armies in the West. When General Grant became President, Sherman was raised to the position of commander-in-chief of the army.

Forrest cuts
Grant's com-
munications.

Grant
retreats.

Sherman
retreats.

509. Battle of Murfreesboro, or Stone River. — The Federal government, dissatisfied with Buell for not crushing Bragg's army while in Kentucky, put in his place General

Rosecrans
supersedes
Buell.

1862

Rosecrans, who had won the victory at Corinth. Rosecrans concentrated his army at Nashville. Meanwhile

Battle of
Murfrees-
boro, Dec.
31, Jan. 2.



WILLIAM S. ROSECRANS.

Bragg had advanced from Chattanooga and established his army in winter quarters at Murfreesboro, Tennessee, on Stone River. Rosecrans advanced, and the armies met in a general engagement on December 31, and again on January 2. It was a drawn battle. Bragg withdrew to Shelbyville and Tullahoma. Both armies had been so badly shattered that they remained inactive for months.

LATTER HALF OF THE YEAR IN THE EAST

Cedar Run,
Aug. 9.

510. Second Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas.—The defeated armies of Banks and Frémont were united with McDowell's army and placed under command of General John Pope, while McClellan's army was as yet on the Peninsula. Jackson, whom Lee sent forward to retard the march of Pope, defeated Banks's corps of Pope's army near Cedar Run. As soon as Lee became certain that McClellan's army was being transferred by water from the Peninsula to Washington, he hurried with the rest of his command to Jackson's assistance.

Pope
defeated,
Aug. 29-30.

Lee's purpose was to strike Pope before McClellan could reënforce him; so with a reunited army he advanced, and on August 29-30 defeated Pope on the old battlefield of Bull Run, before McClellan could get more than a small

part of his forces on the field. Pope's army retreated to Washington.

1862

511. The Maryland Campaign. Battle of Antietam, or Sharpsburg. — The Confederate army had been greatly reduced by battle and disease, and it lacked most of the supplies needed for war. The men were ragged, and many of them without shoes, and Lee knew that his army was in no condition to capture the strong fortifications around Washington; still, wishing to relieve the pressure upon the South, he marched directly northward.

Condition of
Lee's army.

Then Lee ordered Jackson's corps to march to the rear of Harper's Ferry. The post, with eleven thousand men and immense supplies, was surrendered on September 15, and Jackson immediately rejoined General Lee in Maryland.

Lee
advances
into
Maryland.

McClellan's great army followed Lee's, and at Sharpsburg, on Antietam creek in western Maryland, "the bloodiest single day of fighting of the war" occurred on September 17. But though the battle was fierce, neither army gained a victory. McClellan, whose army during the battle outnumbered Lee's two to one, received reënforcements on the following day, yet he did not make another attack. Lee, after waiting on the field all day for a renewal of the battle, recrossed the Potomac into Virginia and encamped around Winchester. Antietam had the effect of a Union victory. No reënforcements could reach Lee, and his Maryland campaign failed.

Battle of
Sharpsburg,
Sept. 17.

512. Battle of Fredericksburg. — McClellan advanced once more into Virginia, but so slowly that the government removed him and placed General Ambrose E. Burnside in command of the army. Burnside moved forward rapidly to Falmouth on the Rappahannock, opposite Fredericksburg. His purpose was to cross at once, but delay occurred

McClellan
advances; is
superseced
by Burnside.

1862

because bridge materials were lacking, and when in a few days his preparations had been made complete, Lee's army confronted him on the opposite heights.

The Federals numbered more than one hundred thousand, and were still twice as many as the Confederates, whose position, however, was exceedingly strong. The Federals crossed the river on pontoon bridges,¹ and on December 13 gallantly charged the heights, but a galling fire from the Confederates made great gaps in the lines. Though driven back, the Federals returned to the charge, making in all six magnificent, but unsuccessful, attempts to take the hills. The loss of the Federals was fearful — more than double that of the Confederates. This battle ended the efforts to take Richmond in 1862.

Burnside
repulsed at
Fredericks-
burg, Dec. 13.

513. *The Monitor and the Merrimac.* — When the Federal authorities, upon the secession of Virginia, abandoned the navy yard at Norfolk, they sank the *Merrimac*, a war frigate. The Confederates raised the vessel and made it an ironclad, calling it the *Virginia*, though it is still generally known by the old name of *Merrimac*. The *Merrimac* when refitted resembled a huge ark. On March 8 it steamed into Hampton Roads and destroyed two frigates, ran another aground, and scattered the rest of the Union fleet of wooden ships.

The
Confederate
ironclad,
Virginia.
March 8.

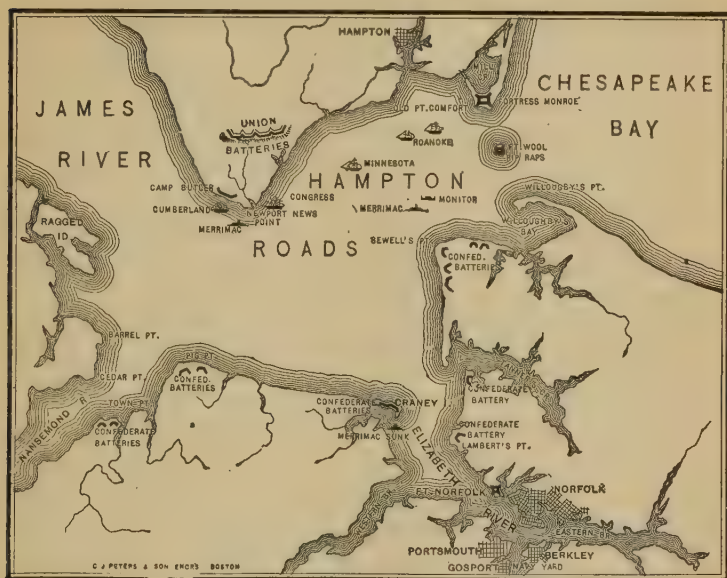
The completion of the work of destruction was expected next day; but in the night the *Monitor*, an invention of John Ericsson, arrived in Hampton Roads. The *Monitor* looked like "a cheese box on a raft," little of it showing above water except a small turret from which cannon were fired. When morning came the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*

The
ironclads
engage.

¹A pontoon bridge is made by laying planks on small boats lashed together.

met in a fierce duel. Not much damage was done to either vessel, but the engagement ended by the *Moni-*

1862



MAP OF HAMPTON ROADS, VIRGINIA.

tor's getting into water too shallow for the *Merrimac* to follow. Nevertheless, the *Monitor* had saved the Union fleet. Results of the engagement.

This was the first time that vessels completely iron-clad had been in battle, and the harmless way in which shots struck their coats of armor showed that the days for wooden ships of war were over. Nations at once began to build armored vessels.



THE "MONITOR" AND THE "MERRIMAC."

1862

The South
needs every
man.

514. The Conscription Law and the Draft Law. — The war had become one of such magnitude and so destructive of life, that it was impossible to fill up the armies with volunteers alone. The Confederacy passed a conscription law requiring every able-bodied citizen, between certain ages, to serve in the army. As the war went on, and the Confederacy became more and more in need of recruits, the law was so extended that it finally included old men and youths.

Drafts in the
North.

The North secured soldiers by a draft law that compelled a citizen, whose name was selected by lot, to serve in the army or furnish a substitute.¹

Great cost of
the war.

515. Results of the Year. — The events of 1862 were, on the whole, favorable to the Federals. They had recovered much of Tennessee and Arkansas, and secured control of all but a small part of the Mississippi River; while the attempts of Bragg and Lee to carry the war into the North had been unsuccessful. Many ports on the Southern coast had been captured; the blockade was thus made much more effective, and in the South the want of supplies of every kind was steadily growing greater. Yet all efforts to take Richmond had failed, and the war was costing the Union two million dollars a day.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

494. THE ARMIES.

495. THE FEDERAL PLAN OF CAMPAIGN.

496. SITUATION IN THE WEST.

497-498. FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON. — Purpose of attack; Fort Henry taken; the siege and surrender of Donelson; result to Confederates.

499. BATTLE OF SHILOH. — Grant and Johnston; reason for attack; Union reinforcements.

¹ The Federal government did not enact a draft law until 1863, but some of the Northern states had to use the draft in raising their quotas of troops in 1862.

500. SECOND LINE OF THE CONFEDERATES BROKEN. — Corinth ; railway system cut. 1862
501. ON THE MISSISSIPPI. — Fall of Memphis ; river not yet wholly open.
502. BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.
503. THE PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN. — McClellan and Magruder ; advance toward Richmond ; Seven Pines.
504. JACKSON IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY. — Advance toward Washington ; sudden attacks ; success of plans.
505. SEVEN DAYS' BATTLE BEFORE RICHMOND. — Lee and McClellan ; failure of Federal campaign ; effect on North ; on South.
506. THE KENTUCKY CAMPAIGN. — Importance of Chattanooga ; threatened by Union troops ; operations in Kentucky ; result.
507. BATTLE OF CORINTH.
508. UNSUCCESSFUL ATTEMPT UPON VICKSBURG.
509. BATTLE OF MURFREESBORO.
510. SECOND BATTLE OF BULL RUN.
511. THE MARYLAND CAMPAIGN. — Condition of Confederate army ; Sharpsburg.
512. BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG.
513. THE "MONITOR" AND THE "MERRIMAC."
514. RECRUITS. — The conscription law ; the draft law.
515. RESULTS OF THE YEAR. — Federals encouraged ; South in want.



THE CAPITOL AT RICHMOND.

CHAPTER XL

THIRD YEAR OF THE CIVIL WAR (1863)

(ADMINISTRATION OF LINCOLN, *continued*)

1863

Slaves to be
freed to
weaken the
South.

516. The Emancipation Proclamation.—It has been stated (see Sec. 492) that soon after hostilities began, Congress passed as a war measure a law confiscating slaves employed in serving the states which were at war with the Federal government. The idea that all slaves in the Confederacy should be set free in order to weaken the power of the South constantly gained strength in the North.

President Lincoln had entered upon his administration with the belief that he had no lawful right to interfere with slavery where it already existed, and with no intention of doing so; but he gradually reached the conclusion that, as the slaves were raising the supplies that fed the Confederate soldiers and were serving as laborers in the Confederate army, "it was a military necessity absolutely essential for the salvation of the nation" that the slaves be emancipated.

Emancipation
proclamations,
Sept.—Jan.

In September, 1862, he issued a proclamation giving warning that all persons held as slaves in any state, or part of a state, that was still in arms against the United States on January 1, 1863, would then be free. On January 1, 1863, he issued a second proclamation, declaring forever free the slaves in the states of the Confederacy except in such parts as were under control of the United

States forces.¹ The Constitution did not give the President the specific right to abolish slavery, and Lincoln himself said the proclamation had "no constitutional or legal justification, except as a war measure"; of course the proclamation could become effective only through force of arms.

1863

Emancipation a war measure.

517. Admission of West Virginia. — In 1863 the section of Virginia west of the mountains, whose people had refused to follow the state into secession, was admitted into the Union as the separate state of West Virginia. The Constitution of the United States forbids the division of a state unless the legislature of the state consents. But the West Virginians already had a government which they claimed was the government of Virginia, and the Federal government so recognized it (see Sec. 486). It was the legislature of this government that consented to the division of Virginia.

Division of a state.

OPERATIONS OF THE EASTERN ARMIES

518. Battle of Chancellorsville. — The Army of the Potomac was still on the Rappahannock River opposite Fredericksburg. Burnside had been relieved in consequence of failure, and General Joseph Hooker was in command. The army numbered one hundred and thirty thousand men.

Hooker supersedes Burnside.

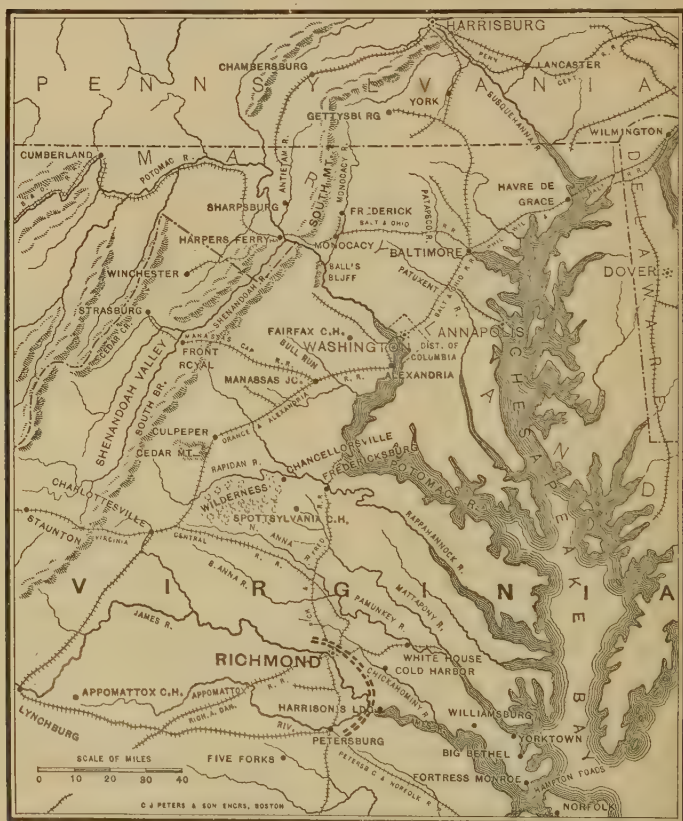
The Army of Northern Virginia, numbering sixty thousand, under Lee, was at Fredericksburg. Hooker crossed the river above Fredericksburg with all but one corps of his army, and took position near Chancellorsville, while

Position of the Virginia armies.

¹The proclamation did not free the slaves in Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, or Missouri, which states had not joined the Confederacy, or Tennessee, which had been almost entirely regained for the Union. Certain sections of Virginia and Louisiana, which had come under control of Federal forces, were also not included.

1863
Lee's
movement.

his remaining corps, under General John Sedgwick, crossed below Fredericksburg. The Confederate army was thus



CAMPAIGNS IN VIRGINIA.

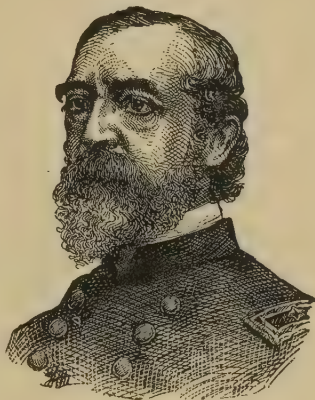
Chancellorsville,
May 2-3.

between the two forces, but Lee divided his own army so as to get Hooker's army between the two wings, and then, pressing Hooker from both sides, inflicted upon him a severe defeat. The battle lasted two days, May 2 and 3.

On the following day Lee turned against Sedgwick at Salem Church and defeated him. The entire Federal army withdrew to the other side of the Rappahannock. 1863 Salem Church.

519. Death of "Stonewall"

Jackson. — Great as was the victory, the Confederates had paid dearly for it, for they lost "Stonewall" Jackson. In the night following the first day's battle, Jackson and his escort rode forward to reconnoiter, and upon their return they were mistaken in the darkness for Federal cavalry, and fired upon by their own men. Jackson was wounded, and pneumonia setting in, he died on May 10.



GEORGE G. MEADE.

GEORGE GORDON MEADE was born at Cadiz, Spain, December 31, 1815; died at Philadelphia, November 6, 1872. He graduated at West Point in 1835, and served in the Mexican War, under Taylor in the Monterey campaign, and afterward under Scott. He commanded a brigade in McClellan's Peninsular campaign, and at Malvern Hill was severely wounded. In all the subsequent campaigns of the Army of the Potomac, Meade took a distinguished part. He led a division at Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, and on the retirement of Hooker, was raised to the command of the army. Gettysburg won for him a name among the greatest of American soldiers. He remained in command until the surrender of Lee's army, being the only commander of the Army of the Potomac who was not superseded.

"Stonewall" Jackson wounded by his own men. Dies, May 10.

Lee invades Pennsylvania

Meade supersedes Hooker.

520. Battle of Gettysburg.

— In June, General Lee, believing that the time had come for carrying the war into the North, invaded Pennsylvania. The Army of the Potomac followed, covering Washington. General George G. Meade was placed in command, Hooker having been relieved at his own request. On July 1 the advance columns of the armies met at Gettysburg, and in a battle that raged until nightfall, two corps of the Federal army were almost destroyed, and the remnant driven back through the town.

First day's battle at Gettysburg, July 1.

1863

Second day's
battle, July 2.Third day's
battle, July 3.The great
Confederate
charge.

The Federals then concentrated on Cemetery Hill and the ridge southeast of the town, while the Confederates occupied Seminary Ridge. These ridges are long, low hills facing each other. The full force of each army having come up, the battle of the second day, July 2, was vigorously contested on the right and on the left, but the Federals withstood the assaults of the Confederates.

The third day, July 3, witnessed the last attempt of the Confederates to drive the Federals from their position — an unsuccessful, but superb, effort. It was as grand a charge as has ever been made in war. Fifteen thousand Confederates, commanded by Generals Pickett, Pettigrew, and Trimble, moved steadily forward, with flags flying, down the slope of Seminary Ridge. They had almost a mile to march before reaching the Federal army, which was posted behind a stone wall and earthworks on the top of Cemetery Ridge. Both armies looked on with admiration as the gray line swept in full view down one slope and up the other. Cannon from Federal batteries raked it, but did not stop it. As the line, after suffering great losses, neared the top of the ridge, the Federal infantry, which had reserved its fire, opened deadly volleys. Pausing only to close the gaps made in their ranks by the falling of the killed and wounded, the Confederates pressed on. Now a storm of shot and shell mowed them down, yet some hundred of the brave men succeeded in clambering over the stone wall. They pierced the first line of the Federals, capturing cannon and carrying their flags to the ridge, but they could do no more. The position was too strong. The great charge had failed. Thousands of the Confederates had fallen, and the shattered ranks retreated down the hill.

The charge
repulsed.

The Federals who repulsed the Confederate assault

were General Winfield Scott Hancock and his veteran corps. The Federals gave up many lives in making their gallant stand. Cemetery Ridge was red that day with the best blood of America.

At Gettysburg the Union army numbered about ninety-three thousand men, and the Confederates about seventy thousand. The losses were: Union, twenty-three thousand; Confederate, twenty thousand. Lee retreated into Virginia, the Federal army following; but no general engagement occurred for the rest of the year between the two great armies in the East.



WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK.

1863

Numbers at
Gettysburg.

Losses.

OPERATIONS OF THE WESTERN ARMIES

521. Fall of Vicksburg.— The Confederates still held the Mississippi between Vicksburg and Port Hudson. With the Army of the Tennessee, Grant renewed his campaign for opening the river.

The Confederate army in and around Vicksburg, commanded by General John C. Pemberton, was about as large as Grant's; and at Jackson, the capital of the state, General Joseph E. Johnston was endeavoring to collect an army to aid Pemberton. By a rapid march Grant captured Jackson, on May 14, driving away Johnston, who had succeeded in collecting only a small force. On May 16, at Champion Hill, and on the 17th, at the Big Black River, the Union general attacked Pemberton, who had

Grant's
second
campaign for
opening the
Mississippi.

Pemberton at
Vicksburg.

Johnston at
Jackson.

1863

Grant's
assaults upon
Vicksburg.

advanced with the purpose of making a junction with Johnston, and drove him back into Vicksburg.

Twice Grant tried to take the city by assault, but each time was repulsed with heavy loss. Then he laid siege for



MAP OF THE VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN.

Vicksburg
besieged.

The fleet.

The garrison
in distress.

the purpose of starving the Confederates into surrender. He had been so heavily reënforced that he was now strong enough to hem in the city and prevent the few troops under Johnston from giving it assistance. The Federal fleet on the river and the siege guns of the army joined in a heavy bombardment of Vicksburg. Women and children found refuge from the shells in caves dug in the hillsides. Food became so scarce that rats and mules were eaten. The Confederate soldiers, wasted by disease and hunger,

and by watching and fighting in the trenches, held out until July 4, when Pemberton was compelled to surrender the city.

1863
Surrender of
Vicksburg,
July 4.

Port Hudson could not be held after Vicksburg fell, and the Mississippi River was at last opened through all its length to the Federals. The loss to the Confederates in this campaign was forty thousand men, of whom thirty thousand were made prisoners at the surrender. In the reduced condition of the Confederacy these men could not be replaced. The Federal loss was less than ten thousand.

Losses.

The opening of the Mississippi cut the Confederacy in two, preventing the Confederate armies east of the river from obtaining supplies and conscripting recruits from the vast area west of the river.

Results of the
campaign.

522. Battle of Chickamauga. — Since the battle of Murfreesboro, in which both armies were so badly shattered, the Federal Army of the Cumberland, under Rosecrans, and the Confederate Army of Tennessee, under Bragg, had done little more than watch each other in Tennessee. The Federals were at Murfreesboro, the Confederates at Shelbyville and Tullahoma. Bragg's army had been greatly reduced by detaching forces to aid the Confederates at Vicksburg, while the army of Rosecrans had been strengthened.

Rosecrans
and Bragg.

In the latter part of June Rosecrans began an advance against Bragg.¹ With his superior force he overlapped

Rosecrans
advances.

¹ Before Rosecrans began his campaign, Bragg sent General John H. Morgan, a Confederate cavalry leader, with twenty-five hundred men, on a raid into Kentucky. By this movement Bragg hoped to delay Rosecrans, but Morgan and his men crossed the Ohio River for a dash into the Northern states. Over Indiana and Ohio the raiders rode by night and by day, passing through town after town, and even through the suburbs of Cincinnati. Regulars and militia swarmed about them in hot pursuit, and killed and wounded so many of them that after going nearly across the state of

1863

Bragg
retreats to
Chattanooga.

Bragg
evacuates
Chattanooga.

his opponent's lines, and by a succession of such movements continued to flank the Confederates, threatening their rear and compelling them to retreat day by day until they retired into Chattanooga. Still continuing his flanking tactics, Rosecrans, by passing to the south of the city and threatening the railroad to Atlanta, by means of which Bragg obtained his supplies, forced the Confederates to evacuate Chattanooga. The city was occupied by a part of the Federal forces on September 9.

Longstreet's
corps
reënforces
Bragg.

Bragg withdrew his army into northern Georgia, but he had no intention of retreating farther. September 19 and 20, in Chickamauga valley, on a creek by the same name, the armies met in the severest two-days' battle of the war. The Confederates had been reënforced, and they were now able to cope with the Union army. Among the reënforcements was the famous corps of the Army of Northern Virginia commanded by General James Longstreet.¹

Battle of
Chickamauga,
Sept. 19, 20.

On the second day the right wing of the Federals was broken, many of the troops fleeing in confusion to Chattanooga, but the left wing under General George H. Thomas nobly held its ground against repeated charges. After nightfall it retired from the battlefield. The loss of the Confederates was nearly twenty thousand men, and that of the Federals nearly seventeen thousand.

Losses.

Rosecrans in
Chattanooga.

523. Battles of Chattanooga. — After the battle of Chickamauga, Rosecrans concentrated his army in Chattanooga. Bragg occupied strong positions on the mountains near by, and laid siege to the city.

Ohio, Morgan had less than four hundred men. He and the remnant of his daring band, except a few who had escaped across the Ohio River, were captured. In twenty-four days they had fought as many skirmishes and had ridden through twice as many towns.

¹ Only a part of Longstreet's corps reached Chickamauga in time for the battle.

The Federal authorities hurried troops from Vicksburg and from the Army of the Potomac to the relief of Rosecrans. Bragg felt compelled to send Longstreet and his corps to oppose Burnside, who had already taken Knoxville and was about to march to the help of the Federals in Chattanooga. Since Bragg's army was thus weakened, Grant, who had been placed in chief command of the Federal armies in the West, and had come in person to Chattanooga, now saw a good opportunity for striking.

On November 23 the Federals captured Orchard Knob and the Confederates' first line of intrenchments along the low range of hills in front of Missionary Ridge. On the following day they climbed the rugged sides of Lookout Mountain and drove off the Confederates. On the third day assaults along the whole line drove the Confederates from Missionary Ridge. Compelled to raise the siege of Chattanooga, Bragg retreated into Georgia.

524. Siege of Knoxville. — Meanwhile Longstreet had begun the siege of Knoxville. On November 29 he assaulted Fort Sanders, but was repulsed with great loss. On the approach of Sherman, whom Grant had sent with a considerable force to relieve Knoxville, Longstreet retreated toward Virginia. Later his corps resumed its place in Lee's army.

525. Attacks on Charleston. — In April, a powerful iron-clad fleet attacked Fort Sumter. It was driven off after a terrific fight. Twice, in July, assaults were made by troops on Battery Wagner, another fort guarding the approach to Charleston. Both assaults were failures. By the end of August bombardments had reduced Sumter to a mass of ruins, yet a garrison still held it, and in September repulsed a night attack made by troops in boats. The city was shelled, but all attempts to take it failed.

1863

Longstreet
detached to
Knoxville.

Orchard
Knob,
Nov. 23.

Lookout
Mountain,
Nov. 24.

Missionary
Ridge,
Nov. 25.

Confederates
retreat.

Longstreet's
repulse at
Fort Sanders,
Nov. 29.

Attack on
Fort Sumter,
April 7.

Assaults on
Battery
Wagner,
July 11, 18.

Sumter's
garrison still
holds the
fort.

1863

526. Results of the Year.—In order to raise enough troops it became necessary to enforce the draft law so rigidly in the North that much opposition to it was aroused. In July a riot occurred in New York city, in which a thousand persons were killed and a million and a half dollars' worth of property was destroyed. Negroes especially were the victims of the mob. Many of them were beaten to death or hanged to trees or lamp-posts. Nevertheless the draft was successful in securing soldiers for the Union army, while the constant loss of territory had reduced the area in which the Confederacy could recruit its armies by the conscription law. Indeed, the fortunes of the Confederacy were sinking. Gettysburg, Vicksburg, and Chattanooga were reverses that would have been sufficient to crush a less dauntless people.

Riot in New
York city,
July 13.

North fills
her armies;
Confederacy
cannot.

Great cost of
the war.

The results of the year had greatly cheered the North, and although it was now costing the Union three million dollars a day, preparations were made to push the war still more vigorously.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 516. THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.**—Preliminary measures; emancipation a war measure.
- 517. ADMISSION OF WEST VIRGINIA.**
- 518-519. BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.**—A Confederate victory; death of "Stonewall" Jackson.
- 520. BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.**—Occasion; plan of battle; result.
- 521. FALL OF VICKSBURG.**—The siege; the Mississippi open; effect on Confederacy.
- 522. BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA.**—Flanking tactics; the battle.
- 523. BATTLES OF CHATTANOOGA.**—Orchard Knob; Lookout Mountain; Missionary Ridge.
- 524. SIEGE OF KNOXVILLE.**
- 525. ATTACKS ON CHARLESTON.**
- 526. RESULTS OF THE YEAR.**—Draft riots; the Confederacy; the Union.

CHAPTER XLI

FOURTH YEAR OF THE CIVIL WAR (1864)

(ADMINISTRATION OF LINCOLN, *continued*)



NATHAN B. FORREST.

527. Early Operations. — A Federal force invaded Florida, but at the battle of Olustee, on February 20, it suffered a severe defeat.

1864

Battle of
Olustee,
Feb. 20.

Sherman marched from Vicksburg for the purpose of destroying railroads in Mississippi and Alabama. He reached Meridian, where he destroyed much railroad property. There he expected to be joined by General W. S. Smith with a division of cavalry from Mem-

Sherman at
Meridian,
Feb. 14.

phis, but Confederate forces under General Forrest defeated Smith at Okolona, Mississippi, on February 22. Smith retreated to Memphis and Sherman returned to Vicksburg. Forrest then made a raid into Tennessee and Kentucky, and captured Fort Pillow on the Mississippi River.

Forrest gains
a victory at
Okolona,
Feb. 22;
captures Fort
Pillow,
April 12.

For the purpose of securing complete control of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas, a Federal army from southern Louisiana, under General Banks, and another from Arkan-

1864

The Red
River
expedition.

Taylor
defeats
Banks.

Kirby Smith
in Arkansas.

sas, under General Steele, were ordered to move against Shreveport, in the northwestern part of Louisiana. Before the armies could unite, a Confederate force under General Richard Taylor attacked and defeated Banks near Mansfield, on April 8. Another battle was fought on the next day at Pleasant Hill; Banks retreated into southern Louisiana. The Confederates, under General E. Kirby Smith, advanced to meet Steele in Arkansas and in two battles, Marks's Mill, April 25, and Jenkins's Ferry five days later, compelled him to retreat to Little Rock. This campaign is known as the Red River expedition.

528. Plan of the Great Campaigns. — The Confederate successes in the beginning of the year had no direct bearing upon the great campaigns. Grant, who had managed affairs in the West with such great results for the Union cause, while one Federal commander after another in the East had met with defeat or only partial success, was placed in command of all the armies of the United States, with the rank of lieutenant-general.

Grant realized that the speediest way to overthrow the Confederacy was to destroy its armies, at whatever cost of life to the Federals. Since the South now had all of its men in the field, it could not replace those it should hereafter lose, while the North could keep the ranks of its armies filled with recruits.

While in command of all the armies, Grant took charge in person of the Army of the Potomac, which was encamped on the Rapidan River, facing Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. Sherman commanded the Federal army in and around Chattanooga. Opposing him was the Confederate Army of Tennessee, at Dalton, Georgia, under Joseph E. Johnston. Grant's plan was for his army to press Lee's, and Sherman's to press Johnston's, so con-

The South
unable to fill
its ranks.

The forces
in Virginia.

The forces
in Georgia.

stantly that neither Confederate commander would be able to send reënforcements to the other.

1864

THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN — FIRST HALF OF THE YEAR

529. Grant's Coöperating Armies. — For the campaign in Virginia three armies were to coöperate. While Grant engaged Lee in front so as to approach Richmond from the north, General B. F. Butler was to advance, with another army, up the James River so as to reach Richmond from the south, while still another force, from the Shenandoah valley and West Virginia, was to march to the rear of the city.

Grant to advance upon Lee.

Butler to advance against Richmond.

530. Battle of the Wilderness. — Early in May Grant crossed the Rapidan with a well-equipped army of one hundred and nineteen thousand men. He attempted to pass around his opponent's right flank and get between him and Richmond, but while in a dense wood, known as the Wilderness, was attacked vigorously by Lee. For two days, May 5 and 6, the armies wrestled in battle. The dark Wilderness, lighted now and then by the flash of cannon and musketry, was strewn with the dead and dying. The Federal losses were much greater than the Confederate, and Grant had failed to flank Lee.

Grant crosses the Rapidan, May 4.

Is attacked by Lee.

Battle of the Wilderness, May 5, 6.

531. Battles of Spottsylvania. — Grant again tried to pass around Lee's right. He moved toward Spottsylvania Court House, but when he reached that point, found that Lee had placed the Confederate army across his path. On May 10, 12, and 18, valiant attempts were made to carry the Confederate line. If broken in one place, it re-formed at once in another, and continued to fight. The assaults and skirmishes of Spottsylvania caused frightful loss of life on both sides. And still Grant had not gained his point.

The Spottsylvania battles, May 9-21.

1864

532. Death of Stuart. — While the armies were at Spottsylvania, the Confederate cavalry general, J. E. B. Stuart,

was wounded in a battle at Yellow Tavern. He died on the following day (May 12). General Wade Hampton succeeded him in command of the cavalry of the Army of Northern Virginia.



J. E. B. STUART.

533. Battle of Cold Harbor.

— After the battles of Spottsylvania, Grant resumed his flanking movements; but Lee shifted his position so skillfully that his army was always between Grant and Richmond.

Two weeks of marching and skirmishing carried the armies some fifty miles to Cold Harbor, where two years before McClellan had been defeated. Here, on June 3, the Army of the Potomac was repulsed in a heroic attempt to carry the Confederate intrenchments.

534. Result of the Campaign. — In the battles from the Wilderness to Cold Harbor, Grant's army had lost almost as many men as Lee had under his command when the campaign began; but Federal losses were repaired by reinforcements, while Grant's hammering process was



WADE HAMPTON.

Yellow
Tavern,
May 12.

Grant
assaults
Lee's lines
at Cold
Harbor,
June 3.

Grant's
hammering
process,

the campaign began; but Federal losses were repaired by reinforcements, while Grant's hammering process was

wearing away the Confederate army. He "was simply giving two men for one, a thing which he could do and still have some left after the last Confederate had perished."

1864

On the other hand, the skill with which Lee, in the face of such great odds, thwarted Grant's plan, has placed the Confederate commander in the front rank of the world's greatest generals. Grant had hoped to give Lee a crushing blow north of Richmond; but he had fought and marched until now he was on the east of the city, near the James River, and his plans must be changed. He decided, therefore, to cross the river, and uniting with Butler's army, approach Richmond from the south by way of Petersburg.

Grant
decides to
cross the
James.

535. Failure of the Coöperating Armies.—Meanwhile Butler's army of forty thousand had advanced up the narrow neck of land between the James and the Appomattox rivers. If Butler had moved rapidly, he might have taken Petersburg or Richmond, for neither of these cities was strongly guarded; but his movement was so slow that the Confederates had time to collect troops from the Carolinas, and he was defeated by Beauregard at Drewry's Bluff, on May 16, and forced to retreat.

Butler's
advance on
Petersburg.

The Federal forces from the Shenandoah valley and West Virginia, under General Hunter, marched up the valley to gain the rear of Richmond. They destroyed much private property by order of General Hunter. In June, General Jubal A. Early, with a corps from Lee's army, entered the valley, and Hunter retreated into West Virginia.

Devastation
of the valley
of Virginia.

536. Assaults on Petersburg.—In the middle of June Grant's forces crossed the James and united with Butler's troops. Assaults were immediately made on the works at Petersburg in the hope that the city might be taken before Lee's army arrived; but Beauregard and his small com-

Beauregard
holds
Petersburg.

Grant
assaults,
June 15-18.

1864

mand held the Federals in check for four days. When Lee reached Petersburg, Grant abandoned the assaults and prepared to lay siege to the city.

THE GEORGIA CAMPAIGN—FIRST HALF OF THE YEAR

537. Sherman flanking Johnston.—Soon after Sherman started from Chattanooga on his campaign against Johnston, his army was increased to one hundred and twelve thousand men. Johnston was at Dalton with sixty-five or seventy thousand. The Federal army consisted of the Army of the Cumberland, the Army of the Tennessee, and the Army of the Ohio. The Army of the Cumberland was almost as large as Johnston's whole army, and Sherman employed it in pressing Johnston in front, while he used his other forces to flank the Confederates and get in their rear. Johnston's plan was to delay Sherman's advance as much as possible, but to avoid battle unless an opportunity favorable for contending against superior numbers should occur.

After assaulting the Confederate lines at Dalton without effect on May 8 and 9, Sherman moved his entire army toward Resaca, in the rear of Johnston. The movement compelled Johnston to fall back to Resaca, where severe fighting took place. Sherman again threatening Johnston's rear, the Confederate commander retired across the Etowah River. Sherman followed. Near Dallas three engagements, known as the battles of New Hope Church, were fought May 25, 27, 28, with no decided advantage to either side.

538. Battle of Kennesaw Mountain.—Meanwhile the long line of the Federals reached out far beyond the flank of the Confederates, and again threatened their rear

The
respective
armies in
north
Georgia.

Sherman's
tactics.

Johnston's
policy.

Battles at
Dalton,
May 8, 9.

Resaca,
May 14, 15.

New Hope
Church, May
25, 27, 28.

Johnston, therefore, gradually fell back to a position near Marietta. The key to the new line of the Confederates was Kennesaw Mountain. On June 27 the Federals charged upon Johnston's strong position, but were driven back with severe losses.

1864

Federal
assault
repulsed,
June 27.

539. Confederates retreat to Atlanta.—Sherman resumed his flanking tactics, and early in July Johnston retired to Atlanta. Johnston had succeeded well in his plans: he had avoided battle except when his smaller numbers could fight to advantage, and his retreat had been masterly. He had fortified Atlanta, hoping to hold the city against Sherman.



JOHN B. HOOD.

But the Confederate government, dissatisfied because Sherman had been allowed to penetrate so far into the Confederacy, removed Johnston and placed General John B. Hood in command, just as the Union army appeared before Atlanta.¹

Johnston
superseded
by Hood.

When Sherman started on his Georgia campaign, he ordered troops at Memphis to give Forrest's cavalry, then in northern Mississippi, such a crushing defeat as would prevent them from interfering with the railroads in Tennessee over which his army received its supplies. Two expeditions were sent against Forrest. General Sturgis, with double the force of Forrest, was defeated at Brice's Cross Roads, on Tishomingo Creek, June 10. Sturgis retreated to Memphis. The second expedition was under General Smith, who likewise outnumbered Forrest two to one. Forrest attacked Smith at Tupelo on July 14, and on the next day Smith retreated to Memphis. Forrest continued so to annoy Sherman that the latter offered promotion to the general whose troops would slay or capture Forrest.

THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN — LAST HALF OF THE YEAR

1864

540. Early's Advance upon Washington. — The retreat of Hunter from the Shenandoah valley left the way open for Early's command to make an attempt upon the Federal capital. Lee advised the movement, hoping that Grant would weaken his army in front of Petersburg by sending troops to the defense of Washington.

Monocacy,
July 9.

Early
retreats to
Virginia.

Early crossed into Maryland, defeated a smaller force collected at Monocacy River on July 9, and two days later appeared before the fortifications of Washington. He made preparations to attack next day, but in the night so many Federal troops reached Washington that Early, knowing that his little army could not then take the city, marched back to the Valley. His movement alarmed the

North and caused President Lincoln to call for volunteers to defend the capital.

Shortly afterward Early sent cavalry on a raid into Pennsylvania. They burned the town of Chambersburg in retaliation, Early said, for Hunter's destruction of property in the Valley.



PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

541. Sheridan and Early in the Valley. — Grant, seeing the importance of the Shenandoah valley, which opened the way

Sheridan in
the Valley.

for invasions of the North, and furnished a great amount of supplies to Lee's army, ordered General Philip H. Sheridan, with strong forces, to drive out the Confederates and lay waste the Valley.

Sheridan defeated Early on Opequon Creek, near Winchester, on September 19, and again at Fisher's Hill two days later. The Confederates retreated up the Valley, and Sheridan laid waste the country for miles around. Grant had directed him to make the Shenandoah valley a "barren waste,"¹ and he made it so. Crops, barns, mills, and live stock were destroyed. So completely was the beautiful Valley devastated that it was said that a crow flying over it would have to carry its rations.

1864

Winchester,
Sept. 19.Fisher's Hill
Sept. 22.The Valley
a "barren
waste."

Early's army made another attempt to regain control of the Valley. Just at dawn, on October 19, while Sheridan was absent from his army, the Confederates surprised the Federals at Cedar Creek, driving them out of their camp. In the afternoon, Sheridan returned and found his army re-formed for battle; the Federals then expelled the Confederates from the camp they had won in the morning. The Confederates again retreated up the Valley.

Cedar Creek
Oct. 19.

The campaign had been a failure in all respects for the Confederates. The loss of supplies from the Shenandoah valley seriously crippled Lee's army. Even the advance upon Washington had no results. Enough troops had been obtained for the defense of the city without reducing Grant's immense army.

Gloomy
failure of the
Confederate
Valley
campaign.

542. Battle of the "Crater." — While the campaign in the Valley was in progress, there was a bloody combat before Petersburg. On July 30 the Federals exploded a mine under the Confederate works, expecting to break through Lee's line before his troops could recover from the surprise. Fire and smoke and a mass of earth, mangled Confederate soldiers, broken cannon and muskets, shot up high in the air. A great pit, or crater, was made in the Confederate line, and into it the Federal troops were

The
Petersburg
mine.

The crater.

¹ Official Records, Series I, Vol. XLIII, Part I, p. 917.

1864

rushed. They became massed together in the crater in horrible confusion and were slain in great numbers by the Confederates, who had recovered from their shock. It was a costly experiment for the Union army.

The
Federals
hold the
front and try
the flanks.

Lee's line
stretched
almost to
breaking.

543. Grant's Tactics. — Having failed to carry the Confederate works by assault, Grant strengthened his own so that they could be held by a small force, and used the rest of his army in flanking Lee's position. The Confederates had a hard task. They had to defend both Petersburg and Richmond, cities twenty-one miles apart. As Grant swung his troops to the right or left, Lee would stretch out his line so far that, with his much smaller numbers, the Confederate works became thinly manned at every point.

When winter set in, active operations ceased. The campaign for the year, including the movements in the Valley, had cost the Union army more than one hundred and twenty-five thousand men. The Confederates had suffered a much smaller loss; but with Grant's grip tightening around their diminishing forces, their position was becoming every day more difficult to hold.

THE GEORGIA-TENNESSEE CAMPAIGN — LAST HALF OF THE YEAR

Peachtree
Creek,
July 20.

Atlanta,
July 22.

Ezra Church,
July 28.

544. Battles around Atlanta. — Hood, on succeeding Johnston, adopted an aggressive policy. He attacked whenever Sherman attempted to flank him. Three engagements occurred near Atlanta: the battles of Peachtree Creek, July 20; Atlanta, July 22; and Ezra Church, July 28. The battle of Atlanta, fought on the outskirts of the city, was the severest of the Georgia campaign.

545. Fall of Atlanta. — But these battles did not save the city. At Jonesboro, Sherman succeeded in seizing the

only railroad that carried supplies to Hood's army in Atlanta. The Confederates attacked at Jonesboro, August 31, and the battle continued on September 1; but Sherman could not be forced to loosen his hold upon the road. Hood evacuated Atlanta, and the Federals took possession of the city.

1864

Jonesboro,
Aug. 31-
Sept. 1.

Federals
occupy
Atlanta,
Sept. 2.

Hood
marches
northward.

546. Sherman's "March to the Sea." — Hood moved his army northward, destroying, as he marched, the railroad from Chattanooga, over which Sherman received his supplies. Hood believed that his movement would cause Sherman to retreat into Tennessee. But Sherman did the reverse. He allowed Hood's army to march on into Tennessee, for he felt sure that the Union forces which were being collected in that state would be sufficient to defeat it. After he had "thoroughly destroyed Atlanta save its mere dwelling houses and churches,"¹ he started, November 15, on his famous march to the sea, with the intention of joining Grant in a combined movement to destroy Lee's army. The resources of the Confederacy were now so nearly exhausted that, with Hood's army in Tennessee, there were no forces to oppose Sherman except a small body of cavalry under General Joseph Wheeler, and a few Georgia militia. These troops resisted, but could do little to retard the great army in its march through Georgia.

Sherman
destroys
Atlanta.

Sherman
marches
upon
Savannah.

Having abandoned their line of supplies when they left Atlanta, the Federal troops lived upon the country. What they could not use for their own needs they destroyed, that it might not be used to feed the Confederate armies, and they tore up railroads in order that nothing might be sent from Georgia to Lee's army. Unfortunately the country was plundered of much property not needed for military purposes. Sherman estimated the ruin made by his march

Destruction

¹ Sherman's Report, Official Records, Series I, Vol. XLIV, p. 8.

1864

Sherman
holds
Savannah,
Dec. 21.

to the sea at one hundred million dollars. On December 21 his troops entered Savannah, the small Confederate garrison having already retreated into South Carolina.

547. **Battles of Franklin and Nashville.** — Hood, having failed to draw Sherman northward, nevertheless marched

Hood's
purpose.



GEORGE H. THOMAS

on. He hoped to overcome the Union forces in Tennessee, and then effect a junction with Lee's army. The combined armies might defeat Grant, and Sherman afterward. But Thomas, the general commanding the Federals in Tennessee, was concentrating an army at Nashville. A force marching to that point, under command of General John M. Schofield, was overtaken by Hood's army, on

Battle of
Franklin,
Nov. 30.

November 30, at Franklin. One of the most stubbornly fought battles of the war followed. The contest, begun in the afternoon, continued far into the night. The Confederates, charging repeatedly upon breastworks which the Federals had hastily thrown up, were hurled back with frightful losses.

Confederates
repulsed.

In the night the Federals resumed their march to Nashville, the Confederates following to the outskirts of the city. By this time Thomas had collected an army of fifty-five thousand men. Hood had about thirty-five thousand. On December 15 and 16 Thomas attacked Hood and put him to rout. The Confederate army, crippled at the battle of Franklin and shattered at the battle of Nashville, retreated into Mississippi and went into winter quarters at Tupelo.

Defeat of
Hood at
Nashville,
Dec. 15, 16.

548. Operations on the Coast. — Early in August, Admiral Farragut ran his fleet past the forts at the entrance of Mobile harbor, just as he had done two years before at New Orleans, and defeated the smaller Confederate fleet in Mobile Bay. Soon afterward the forts in the harbor fell. The city, however, was not taken.

1864

Farragut at
Mobile Bay,
Aug. 5.

549. Confederate Privateers and Cruisers — Sinking of the *Alabama*. — The Confederacy began the war with no navy. Under the authority of the Confederate government, privateers caused many losses to the commerce of the United States. Afterward the Confederacy itself fitted out vessels of war, known as cruisers. The privateers and cruisers almost drove the commerce

The
privateers.



THE CRUISER "ALABAMA."

From a drawing which Captain Semmes pronounced correct.

of the United States from the seas. The most famous of the cruisers was the *Alabama*, commanded by Captain (later Rear Admiral) Raphael Semmes. After sailing all over the world, everywhere capturing merchant vessels belonging to the United States, it was sunk by the United States war vessel *Kearsarge*, in a furious battle fought near the coast of France, on June 19. Semmes and most of his crew were saved.

The
Alabama

The
Kearsarge
sinks the
Alabama,
June 19.

Because some of the cruisers, including the *Alabama*, were built in Great Britain, a neutral nation, the United States obtained large damages in money from the British government after the close of the Civil War. (See Sec. 599.)

550. Presidential Election. — The election for President and Vice President of the United States occurred this year.

1864

The Republicans renominated Lincoln, with Andrew Johnson of Tennessee as their candidate for Vice President. The Democrats nominated General George B. McClellan of New Jersey, and George H. Pendleton of Ohio. The canvass began unfavorably for the Republicans because the long and expensive war had made many persons in the North despair of success; but great victories for the Union armies came before election day, and Lincoln and Johnson were elected by an overwhelming vote.

Lincoln and
Johnson.

The thirty-
sixth state.

551. Admission of Nevada. — In this year Nevada, the thirty-sixth state, was admitted into the Union.

The Con-
federacy's
power
broken.

552. Results of the Year. — The year ended with the Confederacy crumbling to pieces. Its power had been so broken in the West by the ruin of Hood's army in Tennessee that little resistance could be made to the Union forces in that section. Lee's army at Petersburg and small commands scattered over the South were now its only reliance; and Lee's army was in peril.

Cost of the
war.

The opening of the Mississippi River in the previous year had cut the Confederacy in two. Now Sherman's march to the sea had cut it again so that only the Carolinas and a portion of Virginia could furnish supplies to Lee's army. Grant and Sherman were ready with strong armies to cut his last props from under him. The Union armies combined now numbered almost a million men. The cost to the Union of carrying on the war had reached the enormous sum of nearly four million dollars a day.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

527. INVASION OF FLORIDA. — Forrest; the Red River expedition.

528. PLAN OF THE GREAT CAMPAIGNS. — Grant's policy.

- 529-536. THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN.—Grant's coöperating armies; battle of the Wilderness; battles of Spottsylvania; death of Stuart; battle of Cold Harbor; result of campaign; failure of coöperating armies; assaults on Petersburg.
- 537-539. THE GEORGIA CAMPAIGN.—Sherman flanks Johnston; plan; battles; battle of Kennesaw Mountain; Confederates retreat to Atlanta.
- 540-543. THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN CONTINUED.—Early's advance upon Washington; Sheridan and Early in the Valley; battle of the "crater"; Grant's tactics; result of campaign.
- 544-547. THE GEORGIA-TENNESSEE CAMPAIGN.—Atlanta, battles, fall of the city; Sherman's march to the sea; purpose; result; battles of Franklin and Nashville.
- 548-549. NAVAL OPERATIONS.—On the coast; privateers and cruisers; *the Alabama*.
550. THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.—Lincoln and Johnson.
551. ADMISSION OF NEVADA.
552. RESULTS OF THE YEAR.—The Confederacy's power broken.



THE CONFEDERATE FLAG.

CHAPTER XLII

THE END OF THE CIVIL WAR (1865)

(ADMINISTRATION OF LINCOLN, *continued*)

1865

553. Plan of Campaign. — For 1865 the Federal plan of campaign was for Grant to continue his flanking movements to get to the rear of Lee's army, while Sherman marched from Savannah, through the Carolinas, to make a junction with Grant. Then the two were to overwhelm Lee if Grant's forces had not already done so.

Lee in chief
command
of all the
Confederate
forces.
Condition of
Lee's army.

Lee had been made commander-in-chief of all the Confederate forces. He placed Johnston in command in the Carolinas, with instructions to collect as many troops as possible and oppose Sherman. The condition of Lee's own army was desperate in the extreme. As he himself said, the struggle was "to keep the army fed and clothed." Poorly clad, worse fed, and often without shoes, the veterans endured the snow and sleet and rains of winter. "Cold and hunger struck them down in the trenches." The "scant battalions grew smaller and smaller; the lines to be guarded longer and longer."

A matter of
time.

Lee knew that it would be only a short time before Grant's great army would be extended so far around him as to seize his only remaining railroads, not only taking away all chance of his getting supplies, but cutting off the only route for his retreat. He wished, therefore, to abandon Richmond and Petersburg, unite with Johnston's

forces, defeat Sherman, and then defeat Grant. But the winter rains had made the roads so bad that Lee's army horses, enfeebled from want of forage, could not pull the cannon and wagons over them. So he had to wait.

1865

THE CAMPAIGN IN THE CAROLINAS

554. Capture of Fort Fisher. Fall of Wilmington. — On January 15 the Federals made a combined land and naval attack on Fort Fisher, which guarded the city of Wilmington, and the little garrison was overwhelmed. Wilmington was occupied shortly afterward.

555. Sherman's March through the Carolinas. — Early in February, Sherman's army crossed the Savannah River and began its march through South Carolina. Only small bodies of cavalry under Hampton and Wheeler opposed it. The army marked its route by the destruction of property and laid Columbia, the capital of the state, in ashes.¹

Sherman
marches
northward to
join Grant.

Columbia
burned,
Feb. 17.

For four years Charleston had withstood all assaults from the sea, but now with the Federal army in its rear its evacuation was a necessity. Its garrison retreated into North Carolina. Early in March, Sherman entered that state. Johnston also was in North Carolina endeavoring to concentrate enough troops to delay Sherman's advance until Lee's army could join his own.

Evacuation
of Charleston

Sherman in
North
Carolina.

¹ The Federal military authorities deny that there was a deliberate intention to burn Columbia and assert that the fire started from some burning cotton. Many of them admit, however, that their men hated Columbia because it was the capital of the state that had led in the secession movement; that their troops became disorderly, even beyond control, in consequence of excessive drinking; and that, instead of suppressing the conflagration, the disorderly soldiers spread it. See Howard's report, Official Records, Ser. i, Vol. xlvii, Pt. I, p. 199; Logan's report, *Ibid.*, p. 227; Cox's "March to the Sea," p. 174; Slocum's "Sherman's March from Savannah to Bentonville," in "Battles and Leaders of the Civil War," iv, p. 686. See also Rhodes's "Who Burned Columbia?" in *Am. Hist. Review*, vii, pp. 485-493.

1865

Battle of
Averasboro,
March 16.

The garrisons from Charleston and Savannah, under General William J. Hardee, made a stand at Averasboro, where a sharp engagement with one wing of Sherman's army took place. In the night Hardee withdrew to join Johnston, who, having succeeded in collecting only a very small army, attacked Sherman's advance corps at Bentonville on March 19. The battle lasted during the entire afternoon. By the next day the whole of Sherman's army was facing Johnston's frail line. Brisk fighting continued for two days longer, and then Johnston withdrew.

Battle of
Bentonville,
March 19.

Sherman at
Goldsboro.

Sherman advanced to Goldsboro, where he was only one hundred and fifty miles from Grant's army before Petersburg. The Federal army of the West, whose operations had begun four years previously high up the Mississippi valley, had, after fighting many bloody battles, marched through the heart of the Confederacy. It now stood ready to join the Eastern army in the operations against Lee.

THE CAMPAIGN IN VIRGINIA

Lee's last
blow.

556. Assault on Fort Stedman. — Lee, forced to postpone his withdrawal from Petersburg until more favorable weather, decided to assault the Federal intrenchments, with the hope of delaying the seizure of his railroads. The fortification known as Fort Stedman was selected as the point of attack, and General John B. Gordon led the assault, on March 25. The fort was taken, but the Confederates, unable to hold the position under a withering fire, retreated to their own lines after suffering heavy losses.

Grant acts
without
waiting for
Sherman.

557. Battles of Five Forks. — Grant saw no need, with his army so much larger than Lee's, of waiting for Sherman, and thus giving Lee a chance to escape. So toward the end of March he threw a force forward to seize Lee's railroad. Lee ordered a part of his command to check

this movement, and battles fought near Five Forks, March 31 and April 1, resulted in severe defeat to the Confederates.

1865

558. The Confederate Line Broken.

—The necessity of sending forces to Five Forks so weakened Lee's line that at many places in his intrenchments there was only one soldier for every seven yards. Grant's opportunity had now come, and he grasped it. At dawn, April 2, he threw a heavy force against a weak place in the Confederate line of Petersburg. The line was broken, and great masses of Federal troops pushed through. The Confederates retired to an inner line of intrenchments, which they held against all assaults for the rest of the day.



JOHN B. GORDON.

Five Forks,
March 31,
April 1.

The lines of
Petersburg
taken,
April 2.

559. Evacuation of Petersburg and Richmond. Retreat of Lee.—But Lee's losses had been so great that he could no longer hold Petersburg; to save the remnant of his army from being cut off, he began his retreat that night. Not only was Petersburg evacuated, but also Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy, which he had so long and so ably defended. An accidental fire destroyed nearly a third of Richmond. It was only with the assistance of the triumphant Federal troops who entered the city that the conflagration was checked.

Lee retreats.

In his retreat Lee's purpose was still to make a junction with Johnston in North Carolina. He attempted to use the Danville railroad, the only road left him; but being compelled to halt for a day in an effort to collect food

Lee's army
without food.

1865

for his soldiers, time was given the Federals, who were in hot pursuit, to plant themselves firmly across it. Hoping, however, that he might yet reach Danville by passing around his opponents, Lee retreated farther westward.

Pursuit by
the Federals.

The Federals followed closely, pressing upon the rear and hanging upon the flanks of the weary, ragged, hungry little army, whose ranks, harassed by the pursuers and engaged every day in skirmishes, rapidly dwindled. On the fourth day the retreating troops were able to get rations for the first time. Near Farmville the Federal column in the rear pressed so hard that the Confederates were forced to halt and repulse them.

560. The Surrender at Appomattox. — This last stand of the Confederates, successful though it was, proved fatal to their hope of joining Johnston, for another day was lost; and the Federal column, which had hurried along the flank, now pushed ahead and near Appomattox Court House massed so deeply across the line of retreat that the Confederates could not break through. The Army of Northern Virginia had been reduced to about twenty-eight thousand, many of whom were too weak from hunger and exposure to lift a musket to the shoulder. Hemmed in between the two wings of the Union army, each one larger than his entire force, Lee submitted to the inevitable and, on April 9, surrendered.

Lee's army
practically
surrounded.

Grant's
magnanimity.

The terms of surrender offered by Grant were most generous. He paroled the officers and men, and allowed them to go home, having first fed them from the supplies of his own army. He would not allow his troops to celebrate the victory, for he did not wish them to wound the feelings of the valiant men, once their foes, but now their countrymen.

561. Assassination of Lincoln. — The joy at the North over the surrender of Lee was checked by a horror that shocked the whole country, South as well as North. Abraham Lincoln was shot in a theater at Washington, on the night of April 14, by an actor who, sympathizing with the falling Confederacy, thought his deed would avenge the South. Lincoln died the next day.

1865

An act of
madness.

One of the greatest and noblest of the country's many great and noble men was taken away when he could ill be spared. The same master mind that had guided his country through the war was needed to bring the sections into harmony. In his misguided zeal for Southern interests, the assassin had slain the South's most powerful friend.

The South's
loss in
Lincoln's
death.

562. End of the Confederacy. — After the surrender of Lee there was no more hope for the Confederacy. General Johnston surrendered to General Sherman near Durham, North Carolina, April 26. General E. Kirby Smith surrendered in Texas the last Confederate force, on May 26. Shortly before Smith's surrender Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States, was captured in Georgia. He was imprisoned in Fortress Monroe. He repeatedly asked that he be tried on whatever charge might be brought against him; but after having been kept a prisoner for nearly two years, he was released without a trial.

Johnston and
Sherman.Mr. Davis
captured.Mr. Davis
released
without a
trial.

563. Cost of the War in Men. — The great Civil War had ended, but only after a terrible cost in men and money. The enlistments in the Union armies from first to last were more than two and three quarter millions.¹ About three hundred and sixty thousand Union soldiers were killed in battle, or died of wounds or disease while serving in the army.

Total
enlistments.

Losses.

¹ It should be borne in mind, however, that in reckoning the total number of enlistments some men are counted more than once. Enlistments were for a certain length of time, and when that time expired many would reënlist.

1865

On account of its smaller population the Confederacy was never able to bring into the field armies to match in size those of the Union; but it is probable that the total number of enlistments in the Confederate armies was nearly a million. The deaths in the Confederate army are supposed to have equaled those in the Union army; hence the whole number of lives lost on account of the war was nearly three quarters of a million. The number of persons crippled or maimed for life probably reached four hundred thousand. No estimate has ever been made of the number receiving wounds that caused no permanent injury.

564. Cost of the War in Money. How the Money was Raised. — The war cost the country, North and South, about eight billion dollars. To raise the revenues for carrying on the war, the United States government borrowed money, increased the tariff tax, and established an internal revenue system. This system taxed not only luxuries, such as whisky and tobacco, but it taxed the clothing one wore, the food he ate, the property he owned, bought, or sold; it taxed every profession, every business, every corporation — in short, it taxed almost everything.

The demand for so much money soon exhausted all the gold and silver in the country, and the government and banks suspended specie payments. Then the government issued paper money — notes which from their color were called greenbacks. To make these notes circulate as money, the government declared them “legal tender” — that is, good for the payment of debts. So much paper money was issued that it steadily decreased in value until a dollar in greenback paper was worth only forty-three cents in gold. The return of peace caused more confidence in the government and the value of this money began to rise; but the greenbacks were not worth as

How the government provided funds for carrying on the war.

United States greenbacks.

Depreciation of the paper money.

much as gold until the government showed its ability to redeem them in coin, dollar for dollar.

1865

565. What the War Settled.—Though war never did, and never can, determine which view of a controversy is right, yet it can decide that the view held by the victor shall prevail. First and foremost the result of the war made the Union supreme. There came out of the terrible conflict an “indestructible union of indestructible states.” Secession perished by the sword.

The Union
supreme.

The war put an end to slavery—an institution which, though existing at first in both North and South, had come by reason of climate to be confined to the latter section. At the beginning, few would have believed that the war would result in the abolition of slavery. At the present day there are few, even in the South, who would deny that its destruction was a benefit.

Slavery at
an end.

The sections at length came to a better understanding of each other. Mutual respect gradually took the place of mutual prejudice. The Union became greater and nobler because the people became truly one people. The men who died on the battlefield, whether they wore the blue or whether they wore the gray, did not die in vain.

A better
sectional
feeling.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

553. PLAN OF CAMPAIGN.—Federal; Confederate.

554-555. THE CAMPAIGN IN THE CAROLINAS.—Wilmington; Columbia burned; Charleston falls.

556-560. THE CAMPAIGN IN VIRGINIA.—Assault on Fort Stedman; battles of Five Forks; evacuation of Petersburg, cause, purpose, Richmond burned, Lee's plan; the surrender at Appomattox, terms.

561. ASSASSINATION OF LINCOLN.

562. END OF THE CONFEDERACY.

563-564. COST OF THE WAR.—In men; in money; greenbacks.

565. WHAT THE WAR SETTLED.—Secession; slavery; sectional prejudice.

CHAPTER XLIII

LIFE IN THE CONFEDERACY¹

566. The South like a Besieged City. — No correct idea of how the Civil War was brought to a close can be obtained without a knowledge of the condition to which the South was reduced. The North, by its superior strength, starved out the Confederacy as well as battered away its armies. The South was shut off from the rest of the world by Federal armies stretching along its frontiers and Federal fleets blockading its coast. Its people, growing cotton and tobacco in their fields, had always depended largely on the North and Europe for the necessities of life, and, deprived of these sources of supply, their power to carry on a great war was weakened. Nothing showed the remarkable resources of the Union more than the ability with which it equipped, in so short a time, the large navy required to blockade the long Southern seacoast.

Effect of the
blockade.

567. Blockade Runners. — It is true that vessels managed to slip through the blockade, but the trade they were able to carry on between the outside world and the Confederacy was never sufficient to relieve the wants of the South. The men and vessels engaged in this traffic were known as blockade runners. Night was the time always selected for an attempt to run the blockade. The blockade runners had exciting experiences. Many were captured.

Slipping
through the
blockade.

¹ Much of the material for this chapter was found in Dodge's *Domestic Economy of the Confederacy*, Vol. LVIII, *Atlantic Monthly*.

568. Prices. — The necessities of life soon became so scarce that prices rose enormously. Whatever gold there was in the South when the war began, quickly went out of the country in the purchase of the cargoes of the blockade runners, and no more gold could come in, because the blockade prevented the sending of cotton and other Southern products abroad for sale.

Enormous
prices.

The only currency was paper money issued by the Confederate government and by states and cities. The value of this money, which depended solely on faith in the ability of the government to redeem it some day in gold or silver, steadily went down as misfortunes befell the Confederate arms. As the paper money became of less value, prices rose; and as prices rose, more paper money was issued. The South became so flooded with this cheap money that by 1864 sixty dollars in Confederate money were worth only one dollar in gold.

The
Confederate
paper money

In that year "flour was quoted at two hundred and fifty dollars per barrel in Confederate money; meal, fifty dollars; corn, forty, and oats, twenty-five dollars per bushel; beans, fifty dollars, and black-eyed peas, forty-five dollars per bushel; brown sugar, ten dollars, coffee, twelve dollars, and tea, thirty-five dollars per pound." If a lady was able to persuade a blockade runner to accept Confederate money for his precious wares, here are some of the prices she had to pay: French merino or mohair dress, eight hundred to one thousand dollars; cloak of fine cloth, one thousand to fifteen hundred dollars; Balmoral boots, two hundred and fifty dollars per pair; French gloves, one hundred and twenty-five to one hundred and fifty dollars per pair.

Quotations
of prices in
1864.

Business became so dull that it was rare even in large towns for stores to be kept open regularly. Should a

The war
the one
engrossing
matter.

chance purchaser come by, the merchant would open his store to make the sale, and then closing it immediately would stroll off to discuss with his neighbors the progress of the war. Nor could the customer be certain in advance that he should succeed in making the purchase. If he filled his pockets with some hundreds of dollars to buy a sack of salt, a few bushels of corn, and a few pounds of bacon, he might find on reaching the store that prices had doubled, or, perhaps, that the stock had been sold, or else that some recent reverse to the army had determined the merchant not to accept Confederate money at all. Before Lee surrendered, Confederate money had become practically worthless.

Scarcity of
salt.

569. Salt and Meat Precious Commodities. — From the first, salt was most precious, because it was needed for the curing of meat. So scarce did it become that the earthen floors of smoke houses, where salt from the bacon had dripped for years, were dug up and boiled in order to separate the salt from the earth. Stations were erected on the coast for obtaining salt from sea-water, but the blockading fleets made this method unsafe and uncertain. Wood ashes would sometimes be used as a substitute for curing meat, but with little success. Salt increased in value to such an extent that it was used in some cases instead of money.

An anecdote
of Lee.

As the territory in possession of the Confederates decreased, the supply of meat became less and less. Finally, it was almost impossible to obtain enough bacon to keep the soldiers alive. A story is told of General Lee that he once invited some officers to dine in his tent when the only meat served was a piece of fat bacon, or "middling," so small that the guests with delicacy declined to partake of it. The servant thereupon apologized for the small-

ness of the piece by explaining that it had been borrowed for the occasion.

570. Bells cast into Cannon.—Iron was much needed for war purposes, and so little of it was to be had in the South that church bells and plantation bells were melted and cast into cannon. Use was found for all stray pieces of metal. Implements for the farm and utensils for the house, when worn out, could not be replaced, so they were patched and repatched time and again. Old nails were carefully saved, and blacksmiths were kept busy making clumsy needles and pins and scissors.

Scarcity of
iron and
other metal

571. Substitutes for Coffee and Tea.—Many were the substitutes that necessity forced upon the people of the South. Rye, okra, corn, and bran were the most popular substitutes for coffee. Cotton seed was also used, and it was declared with enthusiasm that coffee made from the seed of sea-island cotton could not be told from the best Java, and that made from the upland cotton was exactly like Rio. Raspberry leaves, sassafras root, and corn fodder were substitutes for tea. Sorghum took the place of sugar. Another story told of General Lee is illustrative of the scarcity of table delicacies. On one occasion, when he was the guest of a lady in Richmond, he was offered a cup of tea. His hostess, not wishing him to know that it was all she had, filled another cup with water from the James River, colored by rain and mud until it looked like tea, and sipped it without a grimace.

Another
story in
regard to
General Lee

572. Women's Work.—At the beginning of the war, when the cause of the Confederacy seemed bright, women converted their silk dresses into banners. As reverses came, they cheerfully gave up everything for the army. Their homes and wardrobes were stripped. Woolen dresses and shawls were made into soldiers' shirts; carpets

Devotion of
the Southern
women.

were made into blankets; curtains, sheets, and other linen were made into lint and bandages for the wounded. From morning till night their gentle fingers knitted socks, shirts, and gloves, to keep the cold from the men as they lay in the trenches. As medicines were declared contraband of war by the Federal government, the soldier lying in the hospital suffered not only from lack of proper food, but from lack of medicine. The women, however, did all in their power to relieve his pain or soothe his last hours.

Dress of the
women.

573. Dress of the Women. — Calico was a luxury, for it cost ten dollars a yard, and was as much valued as silk or cashmere in ordinary times. The usual dress was made of homespun, and the hum of the spinning wheel and the whir of the loom, so familiar in colonial days, again met the ear in almost every household. Buttons were made of persimmon seeds with holes pierced for eyes. Women plaited their own hats from straw or the palmetto leaf, and decorated them with feathers from the barnyard cock or other domestic fowl. One mourning dress would often be used by an entire community. It would go from house to house as death entered one door after another. And death came with appalling frequency when almost every day brought a battle or a skirmish.

Wooden-
soled shoes.

574. Scarcity of Leather. — Leather was so hard to get that shoes were made of wood. Generally the entire shoe was made of this material, but sometimes carriage curtains, buggy tops, saddle cloths, or anything bearing a resemblance to leather would be made into uppers and attached to wooden soles. In order to have these soles as thin as possible and yet strong enough, light irons, similar to horse-shoes, were nailed upon them. The footstep would make a resounding noise and the irons would often cut into the

floor now bare of carpet. Ladies patched their shoes with remnants of silk dresses that in better days it had been their good fortune to possess. Old morocco pocketbooks were made into shoes for children.

575. Devotion of the People. — Families were reduced to greatest poverty, many living solely on sorghum and sweet potatoes, yet there was always a place at the table for the passing Confederate soldier, such was the devotion to the cause for which all were willing to suffer. Conditions grew worse as the Federal army seized more and more Confederate territory. The inhabitants of the captured territory would flee to such sections as remained under Confederate control. They were known as “refugees,” and had to be provided for from the rapidly diminishing resources of those with whom they sought shelter. In order to prevent waste of food, it became necessary to punish children when they took more on their plates than they could eat. Many were the acts of heroism. Instances were known where a sick person, having received some delicacy, would send it to a neighbor who was also sick, and thence it would pass from invalid to invalid until it finally came back to the person who had first started it on its round.

Actual
distress in
the South.

The refugees.

Acts of
heroism.

With the Southern soldiers at the front, the slave worked the crop by day, and guarded the women and children by night; or he followed his master into the army, where he cared for the soldier's wants, rejoiced in his victories, and with sorrowing heart brought back to the old homestead the warrior's lifeless body. The slave's faithfulness to his master and to his master's family causes still the admiration of the world.

The slave.

576. The Newspaper. — With few exceptions newspapers were printed on half sheets. The paper was rough, the

A
Confederate
newspaper.

type old, and the ink bad, yet the papers were eagerly read in the home of the planter in the lowlands and in the cabin of the humble dweller on the mountain side; for every household had a husband, a father, or a son in the army. Anxious as all were for news of the war, the newspapers often could give very little. Sometimes the account of a great battle would be told in half a column, and a skirmish, in which a score or more of brave men had given up their lives, would be mentioned in a single sentence.

577. Makeshifts for Stationery.—Such writing paper as was manufactured was of the very coarsest kind, and was so expensive that it was seldom purchased. The home was ransacked for every scrap of paper that could be used in letter writing, and even pages of old account books, often already written on one side, and fly leaves of printed volumes, were put to this purpose. Envelopes were made of wall paper and the pictured leaves of old books, the white sides turned out. Glue was obtained from the gum of peach trees. Poke berries, oak balls, and green persimmons furnished the ink.

Prosperity at
the North.

578. The South Prostrated.—The North drew its armies from a large population and secured, besides, through its abundant wealth, many foreigners to serve as soldiers. With its territory free from the pressure of invading armies, with its ports open to the world, and with a vast majority of its men at home and attending to business, the North prospered all the while. To many in the North the war was only something to read about in the newspapers.

Exhaustion
and distress
at the South.

The Confederacy, however, needed all of its men for soldiers, and, as a consequence, practically every man of the South served in the army. Every battle, except Gettysburg, was fought on Southern soil. Throughout

the South fertile fields and pleasant villages were ruined, and homes were destroyed by great armies moving to and fro. Railroads were torn up. Cotton, the chief staple of the South, was seized by the Federals or burned by the Confederates to keep it from being taken. Two billion dollars invested in slaves were swept away, and the wealth placed in Confederate bonds was lost forever. The Confederacy died of exhaustion.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 566-568. **THE SOUTHERN BLOCKADE.**—Blockade runners; prices; business depression.
- 569-577. **LACK OF DAILY NECESSITIES.**—Scarcity of salt and meat; of iron; substitutes for coffee and tea; sacrifices made by women; dress; scarcity of leather; refugees; the slave; the newspaper; stationery.
578. **THE SOUTH PROSTRATED.**—Compare resources of North and South.



A PAIR OF WOODEN-SOLED SHOES,

Worn by a Confederate Soldier in the latter part of the war.

PART VIII.—RECONSTRUCTION AND REUNION, 1865-1877

CHAPTER XLIV

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON

(SEVENTEENTH PRESIDENT, 1865-1869)

579. Johnson becomes President.—On April 15, 1865, a few hours after the death of Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, the Vice President, took the oath of office as President.

580. The Army Disbanded.—When the war closed the United States had more than a million soldiers in the field. Late in May the armies of Grant and Sherman were reviewed by President Johnson in Washington. They made a column thirty miles long, and it took two days for the entire line to pass in review. The work of disbanding the army began soon after. In a very short time all the troops had been mustered out of the service except about fifty thousand that were retained for preserving order throughout the country. The soldier of the Union, having performed the task required of him on the field of battle, took up again his peaceful pursuits.

581. The Thirteenth Amendment.—As President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation was a war measure, and affected only those sections of the country which were at the time in arms against the United States (see Sec. 516),

The grand
review,
May 23, 24.

The armies
disbanded.

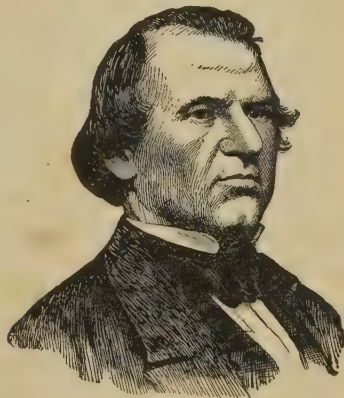
Congress proposed an amendment to the Constitution, prohibiting slavery anywhere in the United States or in any place subject to the jurisdiction of the United States.

Prohibition
of slavery,
1865.

This, the Thirteenth Amendment, was ratified in 1865 by the requisite number of states, and became a part of the Constitution.

582. Johnson's Position.

— At the beginning of his administration, President Johnson was confronted with the grave question of restoring to their former places in the Union the states so lately engaged in war with the United States. The President occupied a very trying position. He had taken the place of a man almost universally beloved, — a man who had brought the country safely through the war, and by whose advice the people would have been willing still to be guided. Johnson, who was of much ability, of rugged honesty and firm character, was himself a Southern man, and moreover, he had been a Democrat until his feeling against secession had led



The
President's
trying
position.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

ANDREW JOHNSON was born in Raleigh, North Carolina, December 29, 1808; died near Carter's Station, Tennessee, July 31, 1875. When only ten years old he was apprenticed to the tailor's trade. His fellow-workmen taught him the alphabet, and he borrowed books and learned to read. At the age of eighteen he removed to Greeneville, Tennessee. He was a Democratic member of Congress from 1843 until 1853, when he became governor of Tennessee. In 1857 he was elected United States Senator. He refused to follow Tennessee in the secession movement, and retained his seat in the Senate until 1862, when Lincoln appointed him military governor of Tennessee. He was elected Vice President by the Republicans, in 1864, in recognition of the services rendered the country by the war Democrats. After his presidential term he was again elected United States Senator from Tennessee, but died soon after taking his seat. The unfortunate difference that arose between Congress and President Johnson made his administration very unpopular, yet it is now generally conceded that in the main points of the controversy Johnson's position was correct.

Johnson
distrusted by
the North.

him to join with the Republicans. So he could not secure the complete confidence of the North; in fact, almost from the first his official acts were distrusted by many through fear that sympathy with his own people might cause him to be too lenient with the South.

583. Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction. — Lincoln had believed that civil government should be restored in the South as soon as armed resistance to the United States had been suppressed, and that it was the duty of the President to reconstruct the state governments. As early as 1863 he had issued a proclamation to the effect that a government organized in any state of the Confederacy, by voters who would take an oath to support the Constitution and laws of the United States, would be recognized by him as the true government of the state. The only condition was that the number of such voters must be at least one tenth of the total number of votes cast in the state at the election of 1860. He excluded from the privilege of taking part in the formation of the new government all persons who had borne a leading part in aid of the Confederacy, and all persons who had left the civil or military service of the United States to join the Confederacy.

Lincoln's
policy and
acts.

While this regulation prevented a large number of white persons from voting, it did not require that negroes should be allowed to vote. President Lincoln knew that a race just emerging from bondage was not capable of voting intelligently. Governments had been organized in a few of the Southern states in accordance with the proclamation, and Lincoln had recognized them. If he had lived, he would probably have succeeded in carrying out his policy of reconstruction.

584. Johnson adopts Lincoln's Policy. — Johnson held very nearly to Lincoln's views regarding reconstruction, and

Lincoln had
no purpose
of giving the
suffrage to
negroes.

he followed his predecessor's plan. The governments in the South which Lincoln had recognized, he allowed to stand. For the other Southern states he appointed provisional¹ governors, who began immediately to organize new state governments. By the end of 1865 all the states lately forming the Confederacy had adopted new constitutions, had repealed or annulled the ordinances of secession, and had abolished slavery; all had elected their governors, legislatures, representatives in Congress, and United States Senators. Nearly all had ratified the Thirteenth Amendment. The President had issued proclamations, declaring that hostilities had ceased and that civil government conforming to the laws of the United States had been restored in every part of the country. In carrying out his policy of reconstructing the Southern governments, Johnson had followed Lincoln in limiting the right to vote to white persons.

Johnson approves the governments that Lincoln had recognized in the South.

Appoints provisional governors elsewhere.

New state constitutions adopted in the Southern states, 1865.

Johnson limits the right of suffrage to the whites.

585. The Freedmen's Bureau. The Vagrancy Laws. — The slaves had always looked to their masters for direction, and when emancipation threw them upon their own resources, many of them were unable to earn a living. Congress realized that it was the duty of the government, at least for a time, to take care of these millions of helpless people. Accordingly, what was called the Freedmen's Bureau was established.

Condition of the freedmen.

The Freedmen's Bureau.

Through the Bureau, lands in the South in the possession of the United States government were leased on easy terms to the freedmen, as the late slaves were called. Food, clothing, and fuel were distributed among them. But the system intended for the good of the negroes worked only harm to them. Like children in their simplic-

Misguided charity.

¹ *Provisional*: temporary. A provisional governor was to serve until a regular governor was elected.

The negroes fast becoming worthless.

ity, many of them thought that something similar to the millennium had come. They saw no need of working if the government would support them, and they supposed that the government would support them forever. The belief became common among them that the government would give every freedman forty acres and a mule. They crowded around the offices of the Bureau; they idled away their time. Many who had been faithful slaves were fast becoming paupers and criminals.

Vagrancy laws.

To guard against the dangers thus threatened, the provisional governments enacted vagrancy laws. A negro who would not work voluntarily was to be fined, and if he failed to pay the fine, he was to be hired out to the person who would pay it for him. Also, for such offenses as malicious mischief or disturbance of the peace, he was to be hired out to the person who would pay his fine. These laws were no harsher than the vagrancy laws of some of the Northern states; but as they were aimed against the negroes, many people in the North thought them merely an effort on the part of the Southern people to place the negroes under another form of slavery.

North fears the South will effect some form of slavery.

Negro suffrage begins to be agitated.

They further thought that the negroes of the South should be allowed to vote, so that, by having a voice in the government, they could protect themselves against oppressive laws. There was, moreover, an extreme class in the North who wished to give the negroes the ballot in order that the Republican party might be kept in power in the South; for it was well known that the negroes, if allowed to vote, would vote with the party that had freed them.

Congress against the President.

586. Congress opposes the President's Plan. — For all these reasons Congress refused to acknowledge the governments which the white people of the South had set up, and declared that no state of the late Confederacy should

be readmitted into the Union until it had shown to the satisfaction of Congress that it was ready for readmission. Thus the President and Congress differed as to which branch of the Federal government should reconstruct the governments of the Southern states. This disagreement soon led to a bitter quarrel between the President and Congress. The President vetoed many of the acts passed by Congress, but Congress usually made the acts laws by passing them over the veto (see Constitution, Article I, Section 7.)

The President uses the veto power.

587. The Fourteenth Amendment. Readmission of Tennessee. — In 1866 Congress proposed another amendment to the Constitution. The Thirteenth Amendment had freed the negro, and the Fourteenth, when ratified by the requisite number of states, would make him a citizen. It declared that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside," and that all persons shall have "the equal protection of the laws." Section 2 of the amendment made it disadvantageous to a state to refuse the negro the ballot. Section 3 prevented from holding office a person who had, as an official, sworn to support the Federal Constitution and had afterward aided the Confederacy, unless Congress by a two-thirds vote of each House should remove the disability.¹ Tennessee promptly ratified the amendment and was thereupon (1866) readmitted into the Union.

Making the negro a citizen.

588. The South under Military Rule. — All other states of the late Confederacy rejected the proposed Fourteenth Amendment, so Congress determined to take the work of reconstruction into its own hands and begin it all over

Congress undertakes reconstruction.

¹ A proposed constitutional amendment is not sent to the President for approval, but is submitted directly to the states for ratification; hence, Johnson had no opportunity to use the veto.

The South in five military districts, each under a general, 1867.

The military power to reconstruct the state governments.

The whites discriminated against.

The negroes in control of the state governments.

again. By a law passed in 1867 the ten states were divided into five districts and placed under military rule. Each district was under a general, who had a sufficient number of soldiers to enforce his authority. He also had charge of organizing governments in the states of his district to take the place of those organized by the President. Influenced by extremists who wished to put the negro in control in the Southern states, the law provided that in the organization of the new governments, the right to vote should be given to practically every freedman of voting age, and should be taken away from white men who had held certain offices in the Federal and state governments and had subsequently served the Confederacy. The law also provided that when a state constitution, satisfactory to Congress, had been adopted, and when the Fourteenth Amendment had been ratified, military rule would be withdrawn and the state readmitted into the Union.

589. Six States Readmitted. — Under this law the negroes voted, while very many whites were disfranchised. Constitutions were declared adopted in North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama,¹ Louisiana, and Arkansas, and these states were readmitted into the Union in 1868. Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas refused to adopt new constitutions; Georgia adopted a constitution, but Congress objected to a statute of the state which denied to the negro the right to hold office. Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, and Georgia were kept out of the Union for some time longer.

590. The Fourteenth Amendment Adopted. — In 1868 the Fourteenth Amendment was declared to be a part of the Constitution, having been ratified by the necessary number of states.

¹ The returns from the election in Alabama showed that the constitution failed of adoption, but nevertheless Congress declared it adopted.

591. The “Carpet-bag Governments.” — The South, hardly beginning to recover from the war, had now another trial before it. Years of misrule followed the giving of the ballot to the negro. Selfish white men secured control of the poor freedmen, who, unused to governing, could only follow where others led. Adventurers from the North poured into the South. They were called “carpet-baggers,” because it was said that every one of them had brought from the North all he owned in a “carpet-bag,” or valise. The few white Southerners who joined with these adventurers in getting rich through misgovernment, were generally known as “scalawags.” The public treasuries were robbed, and the states were burdened with enormous debts. Taxes were raised so high that people lost their property because they could not pay them. The friendly relations that had always existed between the races were destroyed. It was as dark an hour for the South as the Civil War itself. The white people saw ruin for themselves and their states, and were powerless.

Years of misrule.

Northern sharpers.

Carpet-baggers.

Scalawags.

Evil results.

592. Impeachment of the President. — Meanwhile the quarrel between the President and Congress had reached a crisis. One of the many acts of Congress vetoed by the President was the Tenure-of-Office Act. This act forbade the President to remove any official, even a cabinet officer, without the consent of the Senate, although it had been regarded from Washington’s time as the constitutional right of a President to remove an official whenever he thought proper. The purpose of the Tenure-of-Office Act was to tie President Johnson’s hands, and he vetoed the act, but Congress passed it over his veto.

The crisis reached in the quarrel between Congress and the President.

One of the members of Johnson’s cabinet was Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War. The President and the Secretary did not work in harmony, because the latter was

Removal of Stanton.

opposed to the President's reconstruction policy. Stanton was asked by the President to resign, but he refused to do so. Then the President suspended him, but he was reinstated by Congress. Finally, believing the Tenure-of-Office Act unconstitutional, the President dismissed him from office. Stanton appealed to the House of Representatives, and that body by resolution impeached the President of "high crimes and misdemeanors."

Stanton
appeals to
the House.

Impeach-
ment.

After resolving to impeach a President, the House of Representatives presents the charges to the Senate, which body, with the Chief Justice presiding, tries him. It requires a two-thirds vote of the Senate to convict. If the President is convicted, he is removed from office (see Constitution, Article I, Section 3). The principal charge upon which President Johnson was tried was the violation of the Tenure-of-Office Act. The trial lasted nearly two months, from March 30 to May 26, 1868. It resulted in the acquittal of the President. The number of Senators who voted to find the President guilty was one less than the two thirds necessary to convict.

The
President
acquitted,
1868.

The cable
successful.

593. The Atlantic Cable.—Cyrus W. Field, through whose efforts a telegraphic cable had been laid in the Atlantic Ocean in 1858, had not lost faith in the enterprise though the cable ceased to work. (See Sec. 469.) In 1866, a company which he had organized succeeded in laying a cable from Ireland to Newfoundland; there has since been no interruption in the telegraphic service between America and Europe. The submarine cable brings all parts of the world into close touch; every day it carries to the readers of the newspapers the happenings of other countries; it has revolutionized methods of trade by reporting daily the condition of the markets of all the great cities.







594. Admission of Nebraska. — In 1867 Nebraska, the thirty-seventh state, was admitted into the Union. It is a part of the Louisiana Purchase. The thirty-seventh state

595. The Monroe Doctrine. Mexico. Russian America. — While the Civil War was in progress, Napoleon III, Emperor of the French, attempted to establish an empire in Mexico that should be controlled by France. He knew that the United States would object because his project was a violation of the Monroe Doctrine (see Sec. 398); but he thought the time favorable. Despite protests from the United States, French troops overthrew the republican government and took possession of Mexico. Napoleon would establish an empire in Mexico.

Archduke Maximilian, a nephew of the Emperor of Austria, was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico. Maximilian found little support among the Mexicans, but by the aid of the French troops he was able to rule over much of the territory. As soon as the Civil War ended in the United States, the Federal government felt able to enforce its protest against this usurpation. Troops were massed on the Texas frontier, and Napoleon was notified that he must withdraw his soldiers from Mexico. Napoleon was wise enough to avoid a war with the United States, and the last of his troops had left by 1867. Maximilian undertook to continue the empire without the aid of the French; but he was taken prisoner in 1867 by those favoring a republic, and was shot. The republic of Mexico was then reëstablished. Maximilian Emperor of Mexico.

In the same year that the French troops were withdrawn from Mexico, Russian power disappeared from America. The United States purchased Alaska from Russia for seven million two hundred thousand dollars. Though it was then known that Alaska was rich in furs, fish, and lumber, there were many persons who thought that the purchase of that bleak country was a mistake. The Monroe Doctrine enforced.

Napoleon abandons Maximilian.

Maximilian executed, 1867.

Mexico a republic.

Purchase of Alaska, 1867.

Grant and
Colfax.

596. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1868 the Republicans supported General U. S. Grant for the Presidency and Schuyler Colfax of Indiana for the Vice Presidency. The Democrats supported Horatio Seymour of New York and Francis P. Blair of Missouri. Grant and Colfax were elected by a large majority.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

579. JOHNSON BECOMES PRESIDENT.

580. THE ARMY DISBANDED.

581. THE THIRTEENTH AMENDMENT.

582-586. SCHEME OF RECONSTRUCTION. — Johnson's position; Lincoln's plan; Johnson adopts Lincoln's policy; the Freedmen's Bureau, vagrancy laws, effect on North; quarrel between President and Congress.

587. THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT. — Tennessee readmitted.

588. THE SOUTH UNDER MILITARY RULE. — The iron-clad oath.

589. SIX STATES READMITTED.

590. THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT ADOPTED.

591. "CARPET-BAG GOVERNMENTS."

592. IMPEACHMENT OF THE PRESIDENT. — The Tenure-of-Office Act; Stanton's dismissal; proceedings for impeachment.

593. THE ATLANTIC CABLE.

594. ADMISSION OF NEBRASKA.

595. THE MONROE DOCTRINE. — Mexico and the French; the Alaska purchase.

596. THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Grant and Colfax.



ULYSSES S. GRANT

CHAPTER XLV

ADMINISTRATION OF ULYSSES S. GRANT¹

(EIGHTEENTH PRESIDENT, TWO TERMS, 1869-1877)

597. **The Far West. The Pacific Railroad.** — No sooner had California been admitted into the Union (see Sec. 458) than the necessity for a railroad across the continent was seen. Such a road would bring the distant state into closer union with the rest of the country, and it was urged that Congress should appropriate money for its construction. With each succeeding year, as people moved to California and Oregon, the desire that Congress should aid in building the road grew stronger.

Need for
communica-
tion with
California.

In 1858 gold was found in Colorado. The rush to the new gold fields was scarcely less than that to California a few years previously. In two years Denver grew from a mining camp to a thriving little city. Rich silver mines were found in Nevada; and there was another rush of

Gold in
Colorado.
1858.

Silver in
Nevada.

¹ ULYSSES S. GRANT was born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, April 27, 1822; died at Mount McGregor, near Saratoga, New York, July 23, 1885. He graduated at West Point in 1843 and served in the Mexican War as a lieutenant, acting with conspicuous gallantry in many battles. Soon after the outbreak of the Civil War, Grant was appointed colonel of an Illinois regiment, and in less than two months was made a brigadier-general of United States volunteers. On account of his masterly conduct of campaigns in the West, he received steady promotion, becoming, in 1864, commander of all the armies of the United States. In 1866 he was appointed (full) general; this was an office of higher rank than had ever existed in the army, and had been created by Congress in recognition of his services. With his aptitude for soldiership, Grant combined many of the truest traits of manhood. His magnanimity toward his defeated foes is remembered equally with his military achievements.

fortune hunters. Then gold was found in Montana. It was soon evident that both gold and silver were abundant in much of the Rocky Mountain region. At once emigration set in; so many people moved to the far West that between 1860 and 1868 Nevada was made a state, and Colorado, Dakota, Montana, Idaho, Arizona, and Wyoming were erected into territories. Precious metals were not the only attraction. Men grew wealthy by converting great tracts of unoccupied land into ranches for the raising of cattle and sheep.

A great movement to the West.

By 1860 railroads had reached the Missouri River; but the Pacific coast was two thousand miles away. Lines of stagecoaches were established as means of communication with the still distant West; but the time was one of progress, and this method was too slow. Finally Congress consented to aid in the building of a railroad to the Pacific. Two companies were chartered: the Union Pacific was to build westward from Omaha, and the Central Pacific eastward from Sacramento, until their tracks should meet. To each company Congress gave twenty-seven million dollars, in round numbers, besides great areas of valuable land along their routes. Work was begun in 1866. Guarded against hostile Indians by United States troops, ten thousand laborers toiled at the herculean task of laying track over plains and valleys and through lofty mountains. In 1869 the last spike connecting the two roads was driven at Ogden, Utah, and the great continent was at last spanned by rails. Men were living who had once thought that Oregon was too far off to be of value, and that it was not worth holding against the claims of Great Britain (see Sec. 428); they now saw the locomotive bring the distant country within a few days' journey.

Congress aids in building a railroad across the continent.

The road completed, May 10, 1869.

The building of the first Pacific railroad was followed by the construction of others. These roads have proved of great advantage in our commerce with Asia. Previously, products from Japan, China, and India had been

Commercial
expansion.



COMPLETION OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD.

Meeting of the locomotives of the Union and of the Central Pacific railroads.

brought to America by the long route around the Cape of Good Hope; they are now shipped directly across the Pacific Ocean, and by means of the railroads are distributed throughout the country.

598. The South. The Fifteenth Amendment. — Every section prospered except the South. There the negroes, guided by their white leaders, formed an association known as the Loyal League for the purpose of keeping the white race under foot. They committed murder, arson, crimes of every kind. The white people could get no protection from the courts, for judges and jurors were under the con-

The Loyal
League.

trol of those who bred all the trouble. Organizations were therefore formed among the whites for self-protection.

The Ku-Klux Klan.

The most famous of these organizations was the Ku-Klux Klan. Its members were bound by oath of secrecy, and did their work at night. By spreading terror among the negroes, they hoped to keep enough of them from the polls on election day to enable the whites to regain control of the state governments. Some of the members of the Ku-Klux Klan resorted to extreme violence. The terrible condition of the South—robber governments, hatred between the white man and the negro, and constant lawlessness—could never have existed but for the measures employed by Congress in reconstructing the South.

The Fifteenth Amendment, 1870.

Meanwhile, in 1870, an amendment to the Constitution, known as the Fifteenth, was adopted, to make the negro secure in his right to vote. The laws allowing him to vote had been only state laws, which could have been changed at any time. The Fifteenth Amendment prevents the ballot from being taken from the negro for the reason that he is a negro. It declares that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The four states of the late Confederacy that had not already been restored to the Union—Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, and Georgia—were readmitted by 1870, and the reconstruction of the South was declared to be complete.

Reconstruction of the South completed, 1870.

Some of the Southern states suffered the evils of reconstruction longer than others. As the white people gradually had the right of voting restored to them, they regained control of the governments, first in the states where they were more numerous, and then in the others. By the end of Grant's administration every state had been freed from

"carpet-bag" rule, except South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana. In many of the states the "carpet-bag" governments would have disappeared sooner had they not been supported by United States troops.

599. The Alabama Claims. — In 1871 the United States and Great Britain agreed upon a treaty, known as the Treaty of Washington, which provided for a settlement of all matters in dispute between the two countries. The most important question concerned the damages arising from the injury done to the commerce of the United States, during the Civil War, by Confederate cruisers fitted out in British ports. The United States had always asserted that it was the duty of Great Britain as a neutral nation to prevent the sailing of these cruisers from her waters, and since 1863 had been endeavoring to get Great Britain to pay for the damage done to American commerce in consequence of her neglect. Because the most famous of the cruisers fitted out in British ports was the *Alabama* (see Sec. 549), the claims of the United States came to be commonly called the Alabama Claims.

The question of damages resulting from Great Britain's neglect to prevent assaults upon American commerce.

The cruiser *Alabama*.

By the Treaty of Washington it was agreed that the Alabama Claims should be submitted for settlement to a tribunal of arbitration, consisting of five members, one to be named by the President of the United States, one by the Queen of Great Britain, and the three others to be named, one each, by the King of Italy, the President of Switzerland, and the Emperor of Brazil. The tribunal met at Geneva, in Switzerland, and in 1872, announced its decision, known as the Geneva award, to the effect that Great Britain had been negligent of her duties as a neutral power, and should pay to the United States damages to the amount of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars.

A national arbitration.

The tribunal

The Geneva award.

500. Destructive Fires. — In 1871 Chicago suffered from

Great fire in
Chicago,
1871.

the greatest conflagration that has ever been known in an American city. For two days the fire raged. Seventeen thousand buildings were burned, and the loss of property amounted to nearly two hundred million dollars. With wonderful rapidity, characteristic of American enterprise, the city was rebuilt. In 1872 Boston was visited by a fire that destroyed eighty million dollars' worth of property.

Great fire in
Boston, 1872.

The Liberal
Republicans.

601. Grant Re-elected.—For the presidential campaign of 1872, the Republicans renominated Grant, and named Henry Wilson of Massachusetts as their candidate for Vice President. Some of the most eminent Republicans were dissatisfied with the policy of their party in forcing the "carpet-bag" governments upon the South. To them the name of Liberal Republicans was given. They nominated Horace Greeley of New York for President, and B. Gratz Brown of Missouri for Vice President. Their platform demanded that the ballot be restored to all the white people of the South, and that the United States troops stationed in the South for the purpose of upholding the "carpet-bag" governments, be withdrawn. The Democrats, having the same platform, indorsed the nominees of the Liberal Republicans. Grant and Wilson were elected.

Grant and
Wilson.

The silver
dollar
demonetized,
1873.

602. The Coinage Act of 1873.—The discovery of gold in such large quantities in the West had so cheapened that metal as to make the gold dollar worth less than the silver dollar, and as a consequence, the silver dollar had been for twenty years driven out of circulation. Therefore, in 1873, Congress passed an act dropping the silver dollar from the list of coins to be issued from the government mints. The act made the silver dollar cease to be legal tender for the payment of debts, and silver was said to be "demonetized."

603. Financial Panic.—The war had so unsettled the

usual methods of business that many people engaged in rash speculation, taking great risks in the hope of making large gains. The success of the Pacific railroad turned speculation toward railroad building. Within five years more than one billion five hundred million dollars were spent in constructing railroads. Borrowed money furnished the capital for these roads, and they were built much faster than there was demand for them. Many ran through sections of country so sparsely settled that years must pass before they could become profitable. But the money borrowed for their construction had in the meantime to be paid, and when the creditors began to press for their money the crash came. It started in 1873, with the failure of a Philadelphia banking house that was interested in the Northern Pacific railroad, then in the course of construction. Other failures rapidly followed, causing a financial panic from the effect of which it took many years for business to recover.

Speculation

Extravagant
building of
railroads.A financial
crash, 1873.

604. Resumption of Specie Payments.—To meet the expense of the war, the government had issued paper money, known as “greenbacks” (see Sec. 564). These notes were not worth their face value so long as the government was unable to redeem them in gold or silver. In 1875 Congress passed an act providing that on January 1, 1879, the government would redeem in coin all of this money presented for redemption. Immediately the value of the “greenbacks” began to rise, and before the time set for their redemption they had reached their face value.

The
greenbacks
made good.

605. Corruption in Office.—There was much corruption in government circles. The war had required so great expenditures that officials had grown careless about the public money; the upholding of dishonest “carpet-bag” governments in the South had set a bad example to office-

Scandals in
government

holders of the Federal government; lastly, President Grant was too credulous and was persuaded to give places of importance to men who were unworthy.

The
"Whisky
ring."

The greatest of the schemes to defraud the government was the "Whisky ring." In 1875 it was discovered that prominent officials of the internal revenue department were in league with illicit distillers to cheat the government out of the tax due on whisky. The ring had its headquarters in St. Louis, and had branch offices in many of the principal cities. It even had an agent in Washington. Investigation showed that in one year the government had been defrauded of almost two million dollars. Most of the leaders of the ring were convicted and imprisoned.

The "ring"
brought to
judgment.

The Modocs.

606. Indian Troubles.—The Modoc Indians, a fierce tribe of the Northwest, had roamed from the reservation in southern Oregon where the government had placed them, and had given much trouble to settlers. In 1872 troops were sent to force them to return to their reservation. The Indians resisted and a war ensued. In 1873 General E. R. S. Canby and two other commissioners, who had gone among the Modocs to treat for peace, were treacherously murdered. The war continued for some months. After the war the defeated Modocs were transferred to Indian Territory.

The Indians
make war.

The Sioux.

In 1874 gold was discovered on the reservation of the Sioux Indians between Wyoming and Dakota. The Indians protested against the rush of gold seekers to their lands, and as their protest had no effect, they made war upon the whites among them, and even upon settlers outside of the reservation. In 1876 troops were sent against them. General George A. Custer, with less than three hundred cavalymen, came upon the Indians in the Little Big Horn valley in Montana. The Sioux, numbering two

The Sioux
make war.

thousand, were led by their chief, Sitting Bull. They overpowered the little band of cavalry before the rest of the troops could come to Custer's assistance. Custer and every one of his men were killed. The Sioux were subdued soon after, but Sitting Bull and a few of his followers succeeded in escaping into Canada.

Massacre
of Custer and
his men.

607. The Centennial. The Telephone. — A hundred years had passed since the United States had declared themselves free and independent. In celebration of the centennial, a fair was held at Philadelphia, the city in which the Declaration of Independence had been signed. The fair was the greatest that had been held up to that time. Nearly every nation of the civilized world was represented by an exhibit. Most of the states of the Union, and many American commercial houses, also sent contributions to the exhibition. People gathering from every clime saw what progress the people of other nations had made in agriculture, art, science, and trade. They returned to their homes with increased knowledge of the world. The exhibits of our own people surpassed all others. In nothing was the genius of Americans shown more than in their display of inventions. The telephone, which had just been invented by Alexander Graham Bell, attracted most attention.

The
Centennial
Exposition.

The
telephone.

608. Admission of Colorado. — In 1876 Colorado, the thirty-eighth state, was admitted into the Union.

609. Presidential Election. — In the presidential election of 1876 the Republicans supported Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio for President, and William A. Wheeler of New York for Vice President; the Democrats supported Samuel J. Tilden of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana. In the congressional elections two years previously the Democrats had carried the House by a large majority, and they had recovered control of most of the

Conditions
favorable
to the
Democrats.

Southern states. The outlook was favorable, therefore, for the election of their candidates for President and Vice President. On the next morning after the election it was believed that the Democrats had been successful; Republican newspapers conceded the defeat of their party.

The
returning
boards.

But soon there arose a dispute about the result in some states. In South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, each party claimed to have carried the state. In each of these states there was a "returning board," whose duty it was to canvass the votes and declare the result. The members of the "returning boards" had almost unlimited power; they were the sole judges of the legality of the votes cast, and could throw out enough ballots to change the vote of the state. South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana were still under control of the "carpet-bag" governments, and though the returns in each case gave the Democrats a majority, the "returning board," declaring that many of the Democratic votes were fraudulent, threw them out and gave certificates of election to the Republican electors. The Democrats protested that they had been defrauded, and in each state two sets of electors met and forwarded their votes to Congress. One electoral vote of Oregon was also disputed, and two sets of returns were sent from that state.

The
returning
boards
throw out
Democratic
votes.

610. Electoral Commission. — The excitement throughout the country was intense. The number of electoral votes necessary for election was one hundred and eighty-five, and Tilden and Hendricks had received one hundred and eighty-four undisputed votes. In order for Hayes and Wheeler to be elected, they must be given every one of the votes in dispute. The Constitution provides that the electoral vote shall be counted in the presence of the two houses of Congress. It was hardly to be hoped that Congress would reach a conclusion about the disputed

Tilden and
Hendricks
need only
one of the
disputed
votes.

votes, since the Democrats controlled the House and the Republicans the Senate. Finally, Congress submitted the question of the disputed votes to a commission, each house agreeing to abide by its decision unless both houses should vote to overrule it. The commission was composed of five members of the House, five members of the Senate, and five justices of the Supreme Court. Eight of the commission were Republicans and seven Democrats.¹ By a strict party vote — eight to seven — the commission decided that the Republican candidates were entitled to every one of the disputed votes. As both houses would not vote to overrule the decision, Congress then declared that Hayes and Wheeler were elected.

The electoral
commission.

Hayes and
Wheeler.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

597. THE FAR WEST. — Mineral discoveries; Pacific railroad; why important.
 598. THE SOUTH. — The Loyal League; the Ku-Klux Klan; the Fifteenth Amendment; gradual reconstruction of states.
 599. THE ALABAMA CLAIMS. — Substance of claims; arbitration; decision.
 600. CHICAGO AND BOSTON FIRES. 601. GRANT REELECTED.
 602-604. FINANCIAL AFFAIRS. — The Coinage Act of 1873; era of speculation; panic; specie payments resumed.
 605. CORRUPTION IN OFFICE. — The Whisky Ring.
 606. INDIAN TROUBLES. — The Modocs; the Sioux; the Custer massacre.
 607. THE CENTENNIAL. THE TELEPHONE. 608. COLORADO ADMITTED.
 609-610. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Close vote; returning boards; electoral commission; Hayes and Wheeler declared elected.

¹ It was the intention of Congress that the commission should be composed of seven Democrats and seven Republicans, and that the fifteenth member should be David Davis, a justice of the Supreme Court and an independent in politics. But at the critical time Justice Davis was elected United States Senator from Illinois; the act required that five members of the commission should be justices of the Supreme Court, and in that body there were only two Democrats, so that the place on the commission intended for an Independent was necessarily filled by a Republican.

PART IX.—INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

1877-1897

CHAPTER XLVI

ADMINISTRATION OF RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

(NINETEENTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1877-1881)

The
President
a friend to
good
government.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES was born at Delaware, Ohio, October 4, 1822; died at Fremont, Ohio, January 17, 1893. He served in the Union army in the Civil War, rising to the rank of brevet major-general of volunteers; was a Republican member of Congress from Ohio, 1865-1867; was governor of Ohio, 1868-1872, and was again governor in 1876 at the time of his nomination for the Presidency. His administration was marked by his earnest efforts to improve the public service and by the success with which the public credit was maintained at a critical time.

611. Withdrawal of Troops from the South. — One of the first matters to which President Hayes gave his attention was the political conditions in South Carolina and Louisiana. In every Southern state except South Carolina and Louisiana, the whites had recovered control of the government; in each of these two states there were two governments, one white and the other "carpet-bag," both claiming to have been legally elected.¹ The

¹ In Florida, where the government had also been in dispute as the result of the election of 1876, the state supreme court, the majority of whose members were Republican, had already decided that the Democratic government was the legal one.

"carpet-bag," or Republican governments, were supported by United States troops. President Hayes did not believe that the troops should be used for such a purpose, but that the people of a state should be allowed to decide for themselves which government they would have. He therefore withdrew the troops, and the Republican governments in South Carolina and Louisiana fell to pieces. With the South freed from misrule, an era of prosperity began for that section. The political effect of the reconstruction measures was that the South became solidly Democratic.

Withdraws
the troops
from the
South, 1877.

The "Solid
South."

612. Efforts to Reform the Civil Service. — The policy of distributing the offices among the members of the successful political party as "spoils" had reached its extreme limit in Grant's administration. It was largely due to the appointment of men who were unfit to discharge properly the duties of office, that so much corruption and mismanagement had crept into the civil service.¹ President Hayes took a firm stand against the "spoils system," and did much to improve the service.

The
corruption
in politics.

Hayes stands
for improve-
ment.

613. Corporations. Labor Unions. — The Civil War had created such a demand for American products that almost every form of industry had made rapid advancement, and successful men were encouraged to undertake more extensive business by combining their wealth. This was the beginning of great corporations. The formation of these corporations made a change in the relation between labor and capital. The laborer, instead of dealing directly with an individual as his employer, had to deal with the agent of a combination of men, not one of whom, possibly, had he ever seen. The sympathy between employer and employed

Combina-
tions of
capital.

The effect
upon the
employed.

¹ The civil service includes all persons employed by the government except those in the military or naval service.

lessened as their personal contact with each other lessened. There came instead a mutual distrust.

Combina-
tions of
labor.

A Labor
Congress,
1870.

Labor
bureaus.

The Labor
party in
politics.

Blacklisting
laborers.

The purpose
of a strike.

When capital began to combine, labor also began systematic organization. In 1869 "The Noble Order of Knights of Labor" was organized and its growth was rapid. Its purpose was to unite all workingmen for the protection of the laboring interests. In 1870 a National Labor Congress met in Cincinnati and demanded that national banks be abolished; that the government continue to provide a paper currency, but that it be so safeguarded that it could not be controlled by the banks; that a law be passed making eight hours a day's labor; that no more land grants be made to corporations. The agitation of the labor question brought to the attention of the people the importance of the labor element, and caused some of the states to establish labor bureaus for the purpose of collecting information beneficial to labor. In the election of 1872 the Labor party had candidates for President and Vice President; and in 1876, with others who believed in a paper currency, formed the Greenback-Labor party, which nominated candidates.

614. The Pittsburg Riot. — The distrust between employers and the employed grew greater, and the capitalist began to keep a "blacklist" upon which he recorded the names of men he must be careful not to employ because they incited other laborers to discontent; these men he called "agitators." On the other hand, the laborers, when they could not get what they regarded as just demands, would tie up business by quitting work, or "striking." It has always been the wish of the labor organizations to conduct the contests for their rights without violence; but unfortunately, there are in the North and West many laborers from the lowest classes of Europe — anarchists

and communists—who have no respect for law and order. These men often turn a strike into an occasion for the destruction of life and property.

A strike an opportunity for the agitator.

In the summer of 1877 a great strike occurred among the employees of the leading railroad lines in the Middle and Western states on account of a reduction in wages. The coal miners of Pennsylvania also struck. About a hundred thousand men in all quit work. The lawless element, gathering in an immense mob, held complete control of Pittsburg for days. The rioters destroyed railroad cars and buildings, and other property, and brought the business of the railroads to a standstill, while collisions between the militia and the mob resulted in bloodshed. United States troops, which President Hayes sent to the scene, quelled the riot. The value of property destroyed is estimated at ten million dollars.

The great railroad strike of 1877

Rioting at Pittsburg.

Troops suppress the mob.

615. Financial Matters. *Coinage Act of 1878.*—Soon after the silver dollar was demonetized (see Sec. 602), fresh discoveries of silver mines in the West so increased the production of the metal that its value fell. Many persons wished the silver dollar restored to the list of coins to be minted, believing that such action would raise its value to that of the gold dollar, and would thus give the country two kinds of coin. In 1878 an act was passed providing for the coinage of not less than two million nor more than four million silver dollars a month. The silver dollar was again made legal tender, and silver was said to be “remonetized.”

Silver coinage, 1878.

Resumption of Specie Payments.—When January 1, 1879, the day set for the redemption of greenbacks in coin, came (see Sec. 604), only a very small amount of the paper money was presented at the Sub-treasury in New York. When the people found that they could get coin

The greenbacks become good, 1879.

for their greenbacks at any time, paper money became worth as much to them as coin, and as paper money is more convenient for trading, they preferred to continue to use it.

Reduction of
the war debt.

Refunding.

Refunding the Debt. — The Civil War had left the government owing nearly three billion dollars. Much of it had been borrowed at very high rates of interest. As soon as the war was over, the government set about paying the debt. Each year it was considerably reduced. When the ability of the United States both to pay the debt and redeem the greenbacks was seen, the credit of the government rose, and people were glad to lend it money at low rates of interest. The government borrowed money on bonds at a lower rate, and paid its bonds which had borne a higher rate. The difference thus saved was a clear gain to the government of many million dollars a year. To lessen the burden of a debt in this way is known as refunding.

Edison.

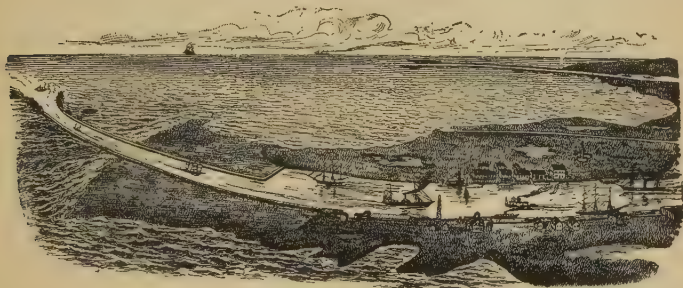
516. *Electric Light.* — In the latter part of Hayes's administration, lighting with electricity, by means of the arc and incandescent lights, began to come into use. For perfecting the incandescent light so as to make it of commercial value, especial credit is due to Thomas A. Edison, the great American inventor.

Eads and his
jetties.

617. *Deepening the Mouth of the Mississippi.* — The current of the Mississippi is constantly bringing down a large amount of sediment. Two of the mouths of the river had become so shallow that large vessels could not pass through, and it was only with difficulty that they could pass through the third. Not only did these obstructions interfere with navigation, but they caused the river to overflow its banks, doing much damage to property. James B. Eads of St. Louis submitted to Congress a plan for deepening the

mouth of the Mississippi by means of the jetty system, which had already proved successful in Europe. This system consists of so narrowing the current by artificial banks of wood, stone, etc., as to make it swift enough to wash the sediment out to sea. Congress made an appropriation, and Eads began work in 1875. The channel was but eight feet in depth; in 1879, when Eads completed his

Eads's
success.



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE MISSISSIPPI JETTIES AT PORT EADS IN 1878.

undertaking, the depth had been increased to twenty feet. Since then the channel has been further deepened, and the jetty system keeps it open so that large sea-going vessels can now easily reach New Orleans. The commerce of that city and of the Mississippi valley has received untold benefit from Eads's enterprise.

618. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1880 the Republican candidates, James A. Garfield of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur of New York, were successful. The Democrats had supported Winfield Scott Hancock of Pennsylvania, and William H. English of Indiana. The Greenback-Labor party and the Prohibition party also presented tickets at this election.

Garfield and
Arthur.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 611. TROOPS WITHDRAWN FROM SOUTH.
- 612. CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.
- 613-614. CAPITAL AND LABOR. — Corporations; labor unions, object, demands; general distrust; the Pittsburg Riot.
- 615. FINANCIAL MATTERS. — Coinage Act of 1878; resumption of specie payments; the national debt; government bonds.
- 616. ELECTRIC LIGHT.
- 617. DEEPENING THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI. — Why necessary; method employed; important result.
- 618. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — Garfield and Arthur.

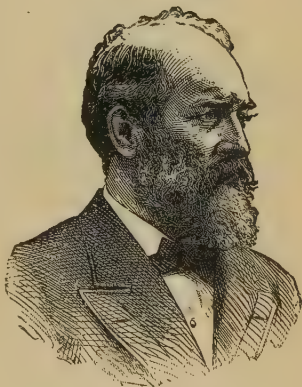
CHAPTER XLVII

ADMINISTRATIONS OF GARFIELD AND ARTHUR

{TWENTIETH AND TWENTY-FIRST PRESIDENTS, ONE TERM,
1881-1885}

619. Assassination of the President. — Garfield had been before the public so long as a distinguished member of Congress that his merits were well recognized. Everybody looked forward to a conservative, safe administration. But the evils of the spoils system, which Hayes had done much toward checking, broke out afresh with Garfield's inauguration, and Washington swarmed with applicants for office.

On July 2, 1881, the President was shot in a railway station at Washington by a disappointed office-seeker. For more than two months he made a brave struggle against death, while from every part of the country prayers went up for his recovery. In the hope that a change of location would benefit him, he was taken to



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD was born at Orange, Ohio, November 19, 1831; died at Elberon, New Jersey, September 19, 1881. His youth was spent in poverty. He studied while he worked, and saved his earnings, so that he was able to attend Williams College, from which institution he was graduated in 1856. Serving in the Union army during the Civil War, he rose to be a major-general. From 1863 to 1880 he was a Republican Representative in Congress from Ohio. He was a member of the electoral commission of 1876. His state had just chosen him to represent her in the United States Senate when he was nominated for the Presidency. Few Presidents have been better fitted, by reason of long public service, for the duties of the office.

The act of a disappointed office-seeker.

President
Garfield dies,
Sept. 19, 1881.

Elberon, on the coast of New Jersey, where he died on September 19.

620. Arthur becomes President.— Vice President Arthur took the oath of office as President the day after the death



Arthur's able
administra-
tion.

CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR was born at Fairfield, Vermont, October 5, 1830; died at New York, November 18, 1886. He graduated at Union College. After teaching school for a short time he began the practice of law in New York city. In 1862 he became inspector-general and quartermaster-general of New York state troops. In 1871 he was appointed collector of the port of New York, which position he held until 1878.

of Garfield. Before his nomination for Vice President, Arthur was little known outside of his state. His nomination had been made to please a faction of the Republican party in New York that had not favored the selection of Garfield. Arthur's inexperience in public matters caused his accession to the Presidency to be viewed with some apprehension. Yet he conducted the affairs of the high office with ability, and no administration has been more free from partisanship than his was.

621. Civil Service Reform. Attempt at Tariff Reduction.

—The assassination of Garfield brought the question of civil service reform home to the people; not only must the service be improved, but the President must be relieved of the pressure from office-seekers. In 1883 Congress passed an act creating a Civil Service Commission.¹ It is the duty of this commission to

The
Civil Service
Commission,
1883.

¹ The Civil Service Act applies directly only to a few minor positions, as the Constitution gives to the President the right to make appointments to most of the offices (see Constitution, Article II, Section 2). Yet the Presidents may take advantage of the law, and to save themselves from the pressure

hold examinations of applicants for office; those who prove to be the best qualified must be selected, no matter to what political party they belong.

As one of the means of meeting the expenses of the Civil War the tariff had been greatly increased (see Sec. 564). In the years that had passed since the close of the war much of the public debt had been paid, and the receipts of the government now largely exceeded its expenses. Many persons had begun to think that the time had come for a reduction of the tariff. They argued that it was an unnecessary tax upon the people, and besides, that a surplus in the Treasury would lead to extravagance in the government. A commission appointed to look into the matter of tariff reduction made a report to Congress, but it had little effect. A majority of the members of Congress were protectionists—men who believe that the tariff should be high for the purpose of protecting American manufactures from foreign competition—and an act passed by Congress in 1883 made only a very slight reduction in the tariff.

The tariff question.

Congress maintains a protective tariff.

622. Law against Polygamy. Cheaper Postage.—The Mormons of Utah and neighboring territories had long followed the practice of polygamy. In 1882 Congress passed an act providing for the infliction of severe punishment upon persons guilty of such practice in the territories.

Anti-polygamy law.

In 1883 letter postage was reduced from three cents to two cents per half ounce.¹

of office-seekers, they have from time to time so extended its workings that most of the positions can be secured only through a civil service examination.

¹ Two years later postage on letters was further reduced to two cents per ounce.

Railroad or
standard
time, 1883.

623. Standard Time. — The railroads had suffered much annoyance on account of the differences in time throughout the country. In 1883 the representatives of the leading railroads, in a convention held at Chicago, agreed upon a "standard time." The country was divided into four sections, each section covering as nearly as possible fifteen



degrees of longitude. The time for each section was to be that of the meridian of longitude passing through the middle of the section. By this arrangement 12 o'clock noon in New York is 11 A.M. in Chicago, 10 A.M. in Salt Lake City, 9 A.M. in San Francisco. Standard time has been generally adopted.

624. "The New South." — In 1784 six or eight bags of cotton — equal to one bale — were shipped from Charleston to England. This was the first exportation of cotton from the United States. In commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of the event, a "World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial" was opened in 1884 at New

The
Centennial
exhibition
at New
Orleans,
1884.

Orleans, the chief port of the South and the largest cotton port of the United States. The centennial drew the attention of the rest of the country to the progress the South was making. In that year that section produced eight million bales of cotton, besides great quantities of corn and wheat. But this was not all. While before the war the South had been almost wholly agricultural, it was now beginning to engage in other forms of industry. Mills, furnaces, and factories were giving employment to many people, and were converting towns into thriving cities.

Progress of
the South.

The South was awaking to its opportunities; side by side with the mill the South has its cotton, iron, and lumber to be made into articles of commerce, and it has abundant coal beds and unexcelled water power with which to move the machinery of the mill. The exhibits of Southern manufactures which were seen at the New Orleans exposition showed how rapidly the South, through its natural resources and the energy of its people, was recovering from the effects of the war and of reconstruction.

The South's
great advantage as a
manufacturing section.

625. Presidential Election. — In the presidential election of 1884 the Republican candidates were James G. Blaine of Maine, and John A. Logan of Illinois; the Democratic candidates were Grover Cleveland of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana. The Prohibition party again put out a ticket, and the Greenback-Labor party united with a new party, the Anti-Monopoly, in naming candidates. There were thus four tickets, but the real contest was between the Democrats and Republicans. Some of the leading Republicans, objecting to Blaine, voted the Democratic ticket. To them the name "mugwump" was given. The election was so close that the result depended upon the vote of New York state. In

Cleveland
and
Hendricks.

that state enough Republicans voted for Cleveland and Hendricks to give the state to the Democrats by a narrow majority. For the first time in twenty-eight years the Democrats secured the Presidency.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 619. ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD.
- 620. ARTHUR BECOMES PRESIDENT.
- 621. CIVIL SERVICE REFORM. TARIFF REDUCTION.
- 622. LAW AGAINST POLYGAMY. CHEAPER POSTAGE.
- 623. STANDARD TIME.
- 624. "THE NEW SOUTH." — Centennial of 1884; industrial progress.
- 625. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — New parties; mugwumps; Cleveland and Hendricks.

CHAPTER XLVIII

FIRST ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND

(TWENTY-SECOND PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1885-1889)

626. The Presidential Succession. — In Washington's administration a law had been passed, providing that in case the offices of President and Vice President both became vacant the President *pro tempore* of the Senate, or if he were ineligible, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, should become President. More than once there had been a time when there was no Vice President, no President *pro tempore* of the Senate, and no Speaker of the House, and if the President had died there would have been no one to take his place at the head of the government. In 1886 a law was enacted, providing that, in case of vacancy in both the Presidency and the Vice Presidency, the duties of the office of President should pass to the Secretary of State, or if he is disqualified, to the



GROVER CLEVELAND.

GROVER CLEVELAND was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, March 18, 1837; died at Princeton, New Jersey, June 24, 1908. He studied law at Buffalo, New York, where he was admitted to the bar in 1859. He was sheriff of Erie County (in which Buffalo is situated) from 1871 to 1874. He was mayor of Buffalo in 1882, and in that year was elected governor of New York by the Democrats, receiving nearly two hundred thousand more votes than his Republican opponent. As President he impressed the country with the courageous manner in which he followed his convictions.

The law of succession in Washington's time.

The new law of succession, 1886.

Possibility
of an extra
election for
President.

1886—the
year of
strikes.

Strikers
resist the
police.

Seven
policemen
killed.

Execution
of the
anarchists.

Great
destruction at
Charleston.

first member of the cabinet who is qualified. The line of succession is arranged in the order of the creation of the several departments.¹ If Congress is not in session, the acting President must convene it on twenty days' notice.

627. The Chicago Anarchists.—There were so many strikes in 1886 that the year is often called the year of strikes. The most memorable one occurred in Chicago. In an effort to secure the adoption of eight hours as a day's labor, many thousand laboring men of that city quit work. Collisions between strikers, on the one side, and police and detectives, on the other, resulted in the killing of some of the strikers. On May 4, 1886, an indignation meeting of laboring men was held at Haymarket Square. Many of the men in the gathering and most of the speakers were anarchists. On account of his violent utterances the police arrested one of the speakers. Immediately some one in the crowd threw into the ranks of the police a dynamite bomb which exploded and caused the death of seven policemen and the wounding of many others. The police promptly closed the gaps in their ranks, charged the mob and dispersed it. Four anarchists, convicted of complicity in the crime, were hanged.

628. The Charleston Earthquake.—On the night of August 31, 1886, the city of Charleston suffered from a severe earthquake. The shock came without warning. Great fissures were made in the earth from which hot mud and sand spouted; houses were demolished; railroad tracks were twisted into inconceivable shapes, and telegraph wires

¹ (1) Secretary of State; (2) Secretary of the Treasury; (3) Secretary of War; (4) Attorney-general; (5) Postmaster-general; (6) Secretary of the Navy; (7) Secretary of the Interior. The cabinet offices of Secretary of Agriculture and Secretary of Commerce and Labor had not been created at the time of the passage of the act.

were thrown down. A number of lives were lost and property to the amount of eight million dollars was destroyed. Generous people from all over the country sent aid to the stricken city.

629. The Statue of Liberty. — In 1886 the statue of Bartholdi's "Liberty Enlightening the World" was unveiled on Bedloe's Island in the harbor of New York. The statue was the gift of the people of the republic of France to the people of the republic of the United States. The idea originated with Monsieur Bartholdi, a citizen of France, and the gift was made in recognition of the grateful love in which America holds Lafayette.

630. Important Laws. Counting the Electoral Vote. — To avoid another such condition as arose in the Hayes-Tilden election (see Sec. 609), an act was passed in 1887, leaving to each state the decision as to its disputed electoral votes.



STATUE OF LIBERTY.
In New York Harbor.

The Interstate Commerce Act. — In 1887 an interstate commerce law was enacted for the purpose of regulating the freight and passenger rates charged by railroads running from one state into another. The chief purpose of the act is to prevent the charging of exorbitant rates and the granting of special concessions that would give favored shippers or cities unfair advantage over others. It is the duty of a commission, composed of five members, to see that the law is observed.

Railroad
rates
regulated.

The Chinese Exclusion Act. — Many thousands of Chinese men had come to our shores. On the Pacific slope, par-

The hostility
to Chinese
cheap labor

Chinese
immigration
prohibited.

ticularly in California, where most of them found work, they had caused great injury to the interests of American laborers. A Chinaman can live on a few cents a day; by his cheap labor he shuts out Americans from employment. Besides, he does not as a rule come to stay, but to make money and then return to China to spend it. In 1888 an act was passed prohibiting Chinese from entering the United States. The law has not had the full effect that was hoped from it, for Chinamen land in British America, where there is no law to prevent them, and slip across the line into the United States.

The
Democratic
doctrine of
tariff for
revenue.

The
Republican
doctrine of
tariff for
protection.

631. The Presidential Election. — No great changes had been made in the tariff that had been levied to meet the expense of the Civil War, and the receipts of the government were so much greater than the expenses that an enormous surplus had accumulated in the treasury. President Cleveland believed that much of the discontent existing in industrial circles was due to the high tariff. He held the view, which has always been a Democratic doctrine, that the tariff was a tax on the people that should not be higher than necessary to meet the expenses of the government. The Republicans, on the other hand, believed that a high tariff not only protected American industries from foreign competition, but enabled laborers to get higher wages.

In 1887 the President sent a message to Congress recommending that the tariff be reduced. As the Republicans controlled the Senate, Congress did not comply with the President's suggestions; and the stand taken by Cleveland made the tariff the leading issue in the presidential election of 1888. The Democratic party declared for a tariff for revenue only, and renominated Cleveland, with Allen G. Thurman of Ohio as their candidate for Vice

President. The Republicans, advocating a tariff for the protection of home industries, nominated Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, and Levi P. Morton of New York. The Prohibition and Labor parties also had tickets. The election resulted in the choice of the Republican nominees.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 626. THE PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION. — First law inadequate ; present law.
- 627. THE CHICAGO ANARCHISTS.
- 628. THE CHARLESTON EARTHQUAKE.
- 629. THE STATUE OF LIBERTY.
- 630. IMPORTANT LAWS. — Disputed electoral votes ; the Interstate Commerce Act ; Chinese Exclusion Act.
- 631. THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — The tariff question ; revenue *versus* protection ; Harrison and Morton elected.

CHAPTER XLIX

ADMINISTRATION OF BENJAMIN HARRISON

(TWENTY-THIRD PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1889-1893)



The rush to
Oklahoma.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

BENJAMIN HARRISON, grandson of President William Henry Harrison, was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833; died at Indianapolis, March 13, 1901. He graduated at Miami University, and practiced law in Indianapolis. He was a gallant soldier of the Union army in the Civil War, becoming brevet brigadier-general. From 1881 to 1887 he was a Republican member of the United States Senate from Indiana. Harrison was an accomplished lawyer, and his administration of the Presidency showed him to be a statesman of no inconsiderable ability.

632. **Oklahoma.**—The central part of Indian Territory, known as Oklahoma, "Beautiful Land," had been purchased by the government from the Creek and Seminole Indians. Early in 1889 Congress passed an act for opening Oklahoma to settlement. A homestead could be secured by the first person who should stake the land. By a proclamation of President Harrison, April 22 was set as the day for the opening, the proclamation declaring that any person entering the territory before noon of that day would be debarred from claiming land. Great crowds gathered on the border

line, awaiting the signal for crossing. As a bugle sounded to announce the appointed time there was a wild

rush to take up lands. More than fifty thousand persons poured into the territory on the first day. Where in the morning there was only the lonely prairie, by night the city of Guthrie had sprung up. A bank had been established, and steps had been taken to organize a municipal government. Within four months Guthrie had a population of eight thousand, four daily newspapers, waterworks, street-car and electric-light systems, and six banks. As other portions of Indian Territory were purchased, they were made parts of the Territory of Oklahoma and were opened to settlement. So marvelous has been the growth of Oklahoma that the census of 1900 showed that four hundred thousand persons were living in the Territory.

A city rises
in a day.

633. The Johnstown Flood. — On May 31, 1889, a terrible disaster befell the city of Johnstown, which is situated in a valley in central Pennsylvania. Heavy rains caused the dam of an immense reservoir above the town to break. The flood swept down the valley at a speed of two and a half miles a minute; the volume of water, fifty feet high, widened to half a mile as it rushed headlong on its course. Villages, mills, and bridges were washed away. Locomotives were lifted up and borne on the breast of the torrent like playthings. When the flood struck Johnstown, the city was nearly wiped out of existence. It is estimated that more than two thousand lives were lost, and that ten million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. The people of the whole land came promptly to the assistance of the sufferers.

Great
destruction
caused by
water.

A city falls
in a day.

634. The Pan-American Congress. — In the autumn of 1889 a Pan-American Congress was held in Washington at the invitation of the United States, and was attended by delegates from the United States, Mexico, the republics of Central America, and most of the republics of South

Growth of
the arbitra-
tion idea.

Enormous
extension of
the pension
rolls.

The
McKinley
Tariff.

"Reciprocity."

America. The meeting was held for the purpose of considering matters relating to the welfare of the three Americas. The most important result was a recommendation that all questions in dispute between American republics be settled by arbitration. Every step toward the avoidance of war is an advancement in civilization.

635. New Pension Act. New Tariff Act. — In 1890 Congress passed a law, known as the Dependent Pension Act, which pensioned all soldiers of the Union who had served ninety days in the Civil War, and who were unable to do manual labor; also the widows and children and dependent parents of such soldiers. The result of the Act was to increase the pension roll in seven years by nearly half a million names.¹

The Republicans having regained control not only of the Presidency, but also of both houses of Congress, enacted a new tariff law in 1890, known as the McKinley Tariff,² which had for its main purpose the raising of the tariff still higher. The act provided that certain articles of foreign production might be imported free of duty, if the country from which they came did not lay a tariff upon articles of the same kind exported from the United States. Such a provision is known as "reciprocity."

636. The Sherman Silver Act. — Many of the friends of silver objected to the coinage act of 1878 (see Sec. 615),

¹ For the year 1903 the number of pensioners on the roll was nearly a million, and all except thirty thousand drew pensions on account of the Civil War. The amount expended by the United States in 1903 for pensions was \$138,890,088.64, or about \$380,000 a day. The states which lately composed the Confederacy pension dependent ex-Confederate soldiers, and dependent widows of soldiers. The amount that each state appropriates for this purpose is necessarily small. The South, therefore, contributes to the support of soldiers of both the Union and Confederate armies.

² So called because William McKinley, of Ohio, was its chief author.

because it restricted the number of silver dollars to be coined; they desired that all silver presented at the treasury should be made into money. Congress would not agree to this course, but as a compromise, passed, in 1890, an act introduced by Senator John Sherman of Ohio, requiring the purchase by the government of four million five hundred thousand ounces of silver per month. This silver was not to be coined, but for every dollar's worth purchased, a paper dollar, redeemable in coin, was to be issued.

A
compromise
concerning
silver
coinage.

637. The Mafia. — In 1890 the chief of police of New Orleans was assassinated. His death was due to his activity in ferreting out crimes committed by members of the Mafia, a dangerous society existing among the lower-class Italians of that and other cities. In 1891 nine Italians were tried for the assassination; six were acquitted, and in the cases of the others mistrials were ordered. The people of New Orleans felt outraged; they believed that the juries had been bribed or intimidated. An immense throng collected at a central point in the city, marched to the jail, forced an entrance, and put the accused Italians to death. Some of the men slain were still citizens of Italy, and the government of that country demanded reparation. For a time there seemed to be danger of war between the countries, but the United States consented to pay an indemnity to the families of such of the victims as were Italian subjects, and so a settlement was reached.

The New
Orleans chief
of police
assassinated.

The accused
Italians are
"lynched."

Trouble with
Italy feared.

Indemnity
wards off
trouble.

638. The New Navy. New States. Woman Suffrage. — In Arthur's administration steps had been taken to build up a navy of armored vessels instead of the old wooden ships. In the administrations of Cleveland and Harrison much progress was made toward a powerful navy.

Great
increase in
the navy
power.

North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington

Forty-four
states, 1890.

were admitted as states in 1889, and Idaho and Wyoming in 1890, making the total number of states forty-four.

Woman
suffrage.

The constitution of Wyoming allows women to vote and hold office. In a few other Western states the suffrage has since been extended to women. In many of the older states women can vote in a limited way, such as on the question of raising money by taxes, and in school or municipal matters.

Beginning of
electric
railways.

639. Electric Railways. — Early in 1888 a street railway line in Richmond, Virginia, was equipped to run its cars by means of electricity. This was the first practical operation of an electric railway. The trolley system rapidly spread in the cities throughout the United States and Europe.

The farmers
organize.

640. The Farmers' Alliance. — In the period just following the Civil War, when moneyed combinations and labor unions started on their rapid growth, the farmers had organized a society called "Patrons of Husbandry," but more commonly known as the "Grangers," for the protection of their interests. Later the "National Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union" was organized. By 1890 the Alliance, claiming to have a membership of about two million, had come to have a strong influence in politics. In 1891-1892 the Alliance united with labor unions to form the People's party, or "Populist" party, as it was more commonly called. The new party demanded that the coinage of silver be free and unlimited and at the ratio of sixteen to one;¹ that the government own all railroad, telegraph, and telephone lines; that the government loan money on lands and produce; and that laws be passed for the proper protection of labor against capital.

The People's
party.

641. Ballot Reform. — So much corruption had crept

¹ That the weight of the silver dollar should be sixteen times that of the gold dollar.

into elections, especially into the election of 1888, that the demand had become general for the better protection of the ballot. By 1892 most of the states had adopted the Australian system of balloting, or modifications of it. The chief merit of the system is that the voter is so protected from the interference or influence of others while preparing his ticket that he can cast a secret ballot.

The
Australian
ballot.

642. The Presidential Election. — In 1892 the Republicans renominated Benjamin Harrison for President, and nominated Whitelaw Reid of New York for Vice President. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland for the third time, with Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois as their candidate for Vice President. The candidate of the People's party for President was James B. Weaver of Iowa. Again, the main difference between the platforms of the Republicans and Democrats was concerning the tariff. The Democrats carried the election.

Cleveland
and
Stevenson.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 632. OKLAHOMA. — Homesteads ; rapid growth.
- 633. THE JOHNSTOWN FLOOD.
- 634. THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS. — Attendance ; purpose ; result.
- 635-636. THREE IMPORTANT ACTS. — Dependent Pension Act ; the McKinley Tariff ; the Sherman Silver Act.
- 637. THE MAFIA. — A dangerous society ; war with Italy averted.
- 638. THE NAVY. NEW STATES. WOMAN SUFFRAGE.
- 639. ELECTRIC RAILWAYS.
- 640. THE FARMERS' ALLIANCE. — Object ; the Populists ; demands.
- 641. BALLOT REFORM. — The Australian system.
- 642. THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. — The tariff issue ; Democratic success.

CHAPTER L

SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF CLEVELAND

(TWENTY-FOURTH PRESIDENT, ONE TERM, 1893-1897)

The
Sandwich
Islands.

A revolution.

Harrison
willing to
accept
Hawaii.

643. Hawaii. — Early in 1893 a revolution occurred in Hawaii, a group of islands situated in the Pacific Ocean, nearly three thousand miles southwest of San Francisco. The government had been a monarchy. The queen, Liliuokalani, jealous of the growing wealth and political power of the foreigners who had been attracted to the islands by the rich sugar lands, attempted to deprive many of them of the right to vote. Foreign residents of Honolulu, the capital, set about to thwart the queen's design. Americans who engaged in the movement applied to a United States man-of-war, lying in the harbor, for protection. Marines were landed from the vessel. On the next day the foreigners declared the monarchy abolished. A provisional government was established to continue "until terms of union with the United States of America have been negotiated and agreed upon."

Commissioners from the provisional government were hurried to the United States, and a treaty of annexation was signed without delay. President Harrison sent the treaty to the Senate for ratification a few weeks before his term expired. When Cleveland was inaugurated the treaty had not been acted upon. The new President, believing that the revolution had been accomplished, not

by the will of the majority of the inhabitants, but by the improper use of United States forces, withdrew the treaty from the Senate. Investigation of affairs on the islands having satisfied Cleveland of the correctness of his belief, he attempted, through diplomatic channels, to restore Queen Liliuokalani to the throne, but his efforts were unsuccessful. The provisional government continued until July 4, 1894, when the republic of Hawaii was proclaimed.

Cleveland regards the revolution as unjust.

644. The World's Fair.—In commemoration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America,

The Columbian Exposition at Chicago.



COURT OF HONOR, COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION, 1893.

the "World's Columbian Exposition" was held in Chicago in 1893.¹ In size, in splendor, and in successful management, it excelled every fair that the world had ever seen. It showed the wonderful advancement that had been made, not only by this country, but by the world, in the seventeen years that had passed since the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia (see Sec. 607). In the six months that the exposition continued there were more than twenty-seven million admissions.

¹ The fair was not ready to be held in 1892, the four hundredth year.

Want of
confidence
causes a
panic.

Loss to
business
interests.

Repeal of the
Sherman
Act.

The views
of the bi-
metallists.

Prices rise.

645. The Panic of 1893. — While the fair was showing the great progress of the United States, a severe panic fell upon the country. Business had been prosperous, but there arose in the commercial centers a doubt concerning the value of the moneys in use. The Sherman Silver Act (see Sec. 636) had increased the quantity of paper money, and many feared that the government would not be able to redeem all of it in gold. The value of silver had dropped to sixty-seven cents on the dollar, and people hastened to exchange their paper money before all the gold in the treasury should become exhausted. They withdrew their deposits from the banks. Gold thus secured was hoarded. Money became so scarce that banks failed and factories closed. Much suffering ensued among the thousands thrown out of employment.

President Cleveland believed that the panic was due to the Sherman Act, and upon his recommendation Congress repealed the act in 1893.

The friends of silver took a different view. They asserted that the trouble was due to the fact that gold was too scarce a metal to be the sole standard of money; that the credit of the government was sufficient to make a silver dollar as good as a gold dollar; therefore, in order that there might be sufficient coin for the needs of business, they advocated the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen to one.

Improvement in the condition of business did not follow the repeal of the Sherman Act. The distress was greatest in the South and West. In those sections the crops had failed. In the West, moreover, the silver mines, owing to the depreciation of silver, had closed, causing many thousands more to be added to the ranks of the unemployed.

Yet, in addition to all these troubles, the price of every-

thing the people had to buy had risen. The demand for free silver grew rapidly in the South and West.

646. A Democratic Tariff Bill. — The Democrats having control of Congress, the tariff was reduced by an act passed in 1894. To make sure that the revenue would be sufficient, a tax was placed on incomes. The Supreme Court declared the tax to be unconstitutional, and the receipts of the government fell below its expenses. Thus the financial condition of the government became more complicated.

Reduction of
the tariff.

The income
tax.

647. Strikes. — Meanwhile strikes were further disarranging business. In Pennsylvania two hundred thousand coal miners quit work. For want of fuel, factories had to close. There were riots and losses of life. The strike lasted for some months.

Strike of
coal miners.

While the strike of the coal miners was in progress a more formidable one was begun in Chicago. The wages of the employees of the Pullman Car Company's works at Pullman, a suburb of Chicago, had been reduced. The strike grew out of the refusal of the company to restore the wages to the former scale. The employees urged the company to submit the matter to arbitration; committees of disinterested citizens also advised arbitration, but the invariable reply was, "The company has nothing to arbitrate." The strikers from the Pullman Company belonged to a labor organization known as the American Railway Union, which included in its membership a large number of employees of the different railroads. The members of the union made common cause with the Pullman strikers and refused to handle trains to which Pullman cars were attached. The boycott harmfully affected the running of trains on nearly every railroad west of Ohio.

The Pullman
strike, 1894.

The Railway
Union.

Since the stoppage of trains interfered with the mails

The
President
sends troops
to Chicago.

and interstate commerce, President Cleveland ordered United States troops to Chicago. Lives were lost in collisions between the troops and the strikers. Finally the strike collapsed, though not until the lawless element had destroyed much property. The total loss to the railroads in earnings and property and to the strikers in wages exceeded eight million dollars.

The seal
fisheries
question.

648. Diplomatic Troubles. — The United States government claimed the right to control the seal fisheries in Bering Sea, and in order to prevent the total destruction of these valuable animals, had placed regulations upon seal catching. Vessels violating the regulations were seized. As some of these vessels belonged to Canadians, the British government protested. The dispute was referred to a commission of arbitration. The decision of the commission, rendered in 1893, declared that the United States could not control the Bering Sea fisheries; yet the United States gained what it desired, for the commission made regulations for the protection of the seals, which became binding on both the United States and Great Britain.

Arbitration.

The
Venezuela
question.

For many years there had been a dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela concerning the boundary between British Guiana and Venezuela. Although Venezuela wished to submit the matter to arbitration, and the United States advised such a course, Great Britain refused to arbitrate. From time to time Great Britain pushed its boundary line farther into territory claimed by Venezuela. President Cleveland, holding that the action of Great Britain was contrary to the Monroe Doctrine (see Sec. 398), in 1895 asked Congress for authority to appoint a commission to ascertain the true boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana, and recommended that the United States insist upon the acceptance of the commission's find-

ing. Congress authorized the appointment of the commission, and war clouds for a while seemed to hang over the two great English-speaking countries. Fortunately, however, Great Britain agreed to arbitrate, and the dispute was amicably settled.

Arbitration.

649. Admission of Utah. — In 1896 Utah, the forty-fifth state, was admitted into the Union.

The
forty-fifth
state, 1896.

650. Cleveland and Civil Service. — President Cleveland was a staunch advocate of civil service reform. Though all the Presidents since Grant's time had improved the public service, Cleveland accomplished more than any other.

651. The Presidential Election. — In the election of 1896 the money question was the leading issue. The Democrats advocated the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen to one; the Republicans opposed unless the other great nations would also agree to coin silver at the same ratio. The Democrats nominated William J. Bryan of Nebraska, and Arthur Sewall of Maine; the Republicans nominated William McKinley of Ohio, and Garret A. Hobart of New Jersey. Republicans who believed in the free coinage of silver split from their party and indorsed the Democratic nominees. On the other hand, Democrats opposed to free silver formed the "National" Democratic party and nominated John M. Palmer of Illinois, and Simon B. Buckner of Kentucky. The People's party accepted the nomination of Bryan, but named Thomas E. Watson of Georgia as its candidate for Vice President. The Prohibition and Socialist Labor parties also had candidates.

The coinage
question the
great issue.

The campaign was perhaps the most exciting that the country has ever experienced. In the intense interest aroused by the money question other issues were almost completely lost sight of. McKinley and Hobart were elected by a large majority.

McKinley
and Hobart.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 643. HAWAII.—Location; revolution; annexation desired; a provisional government; Hawaii a republic.
- 644. THE WORLD'S FAIR.—Occasion; purpose.
- 645. THE PANIC OF 1893.—Silver depreciation; panic; bimetallism; repeal of the Sherman Act; free silver.
- 646. A DEMOCRATIC TARIFF BILL.—Income tax.
- 647. STRIKES.—Coal strike; the Pullman Company; the strike ended.
- 648. DIPLOMATIC TROUBLES.—The Bering Sea fisheries; the Venezuela boundary; arbitration.
- 649. ADMISSION OF UTAH.
- 650. CLEVELAND AND CIVIL SERVICE.
- 651. THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.—The silver question; McKinley and Hobart elected.

PART X.—TERRITORIAL EXPANSION

1897—

CHAPTER LI

ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM MCKINLEY

(TWENTY-FIFTH PRESIDENT, 1897-1901)

WAR WITH SPAIN (1898)

652. **The Cuban War for Independence.**—By 1825 Spain had lost, through misgovernment, all of her colonial possessions in America except Cuba, Porto Rico, and some smaller islands in the West Indies. There had been frequent insurrections in Cuba, but Spain, heedless of the lesson which the loss of other territory should have taught, continued to oppress the island. The Spanish government fixed the rate of taxes to be paid by the Cubans, and spent almost all of the revenue derived from these taxes in Spain. The people had little voice in their government; as a rule the officials were men sent over from Spain. Few public improvements were made, and there was no proper development of the island.

The policy of Spain toward her colonies.

In 1895 Cubans once more rose in insurrection. They avoided open battle, but dividing into small bands, fought frequent skirmishes with the government forces. Nearly all of the rural population were suspected of furnishing the

The Cuban insurgents.

insurgents with supplies, and of keeping them informed of the movements of the Spanish troops. In order to deprive the insurgents of such advantages, Weyler, the captain-general of Cuba, began in 1896 to destroy houses and

The "reconcentration" policy.



Its effect.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY was born at Niles, Ohio, January 29, 1843, died at Buffalo, New York, September 14, 1901. He served in the Union army in the Civil War, and rose to the rank of major. From 1879 to 1891 he was a Republican member of Congress from Ohio. In 1889-1891 he was chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means in Congress, and as chief author of the McKinley Tariff bill, his name became famous in every part of the country. In 1891 he was elected governor of Ohio, and in 1893 was reelected. As President he won, by his kindly nature and high sense of justice, the esteem of every one regardless of political party.

America's interest in Cuba.

crops, and to drive the inhabitants into reconcentration camps in the neighborhood of cities and towns. Men, women, and children were herded in these camps, where they were closely guarded by soldiers. They were given insufficient food and shelter, and no precaution was taken against the spread of disease. By the spring of 1897 three hundred thousand persons had been collected in the camps, and more than half of them had died. Still the war went on. The Spaniards could not conquer the insurgents, and the insurgents could not drive the Spaniards from the island.

653. Relations of the United States with Cuba. —

The people of the United States could not be indifferent to conditions in Cuba. The island lies but a little more than a hundred miles from Florida. So long as it was held by a foreign power it might, in time of war, become a source of danger as a base for the enemy's operations. Besides, through Spain's neglect of sanitary precautions, yellow

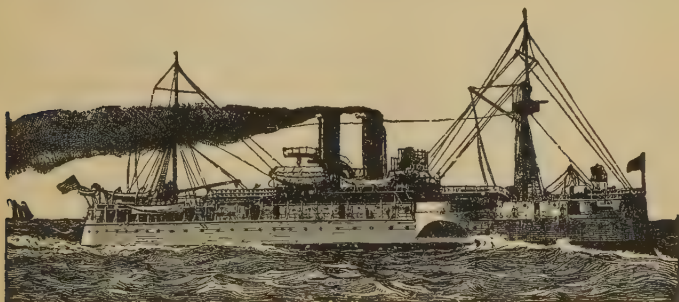
fever infested the seaports, whence the disease was often brought to the coast of the Southern states.

Commerce between the United States and Cuba was seriously affected by every insurrection that occurred on the island. Furthermore, Americans had invested largely in Cuban industries, especially in sugar plantations. Spain's policy of laying waste the island in order to put down the insurrection brought ruin to much American property.

Injury to
commerce.

But over and above these considerations the American people had a genuine sympathy with the Cubans in their struggle for liberty and an abhorrence of the Spanish mode of warfare. Popular demand was strong for the United States to give some manner of aid to the insurgents. President Cleveland, and then President McKinley, endeavored to bring about a peaceful solution of the Cuban question, but without success.

Sympathy
with the
Cuban
patriots.



U. S. BATTLESHIP "MAINE."

654. **The Blowing up of the *Maine*.** — Early in 1898 the United States battleship *Maine* went on a friendly visit to Havana. On the night of February 15, while lying at anchor in the harbor, the vessel was blown up and two hundred and sixty-six of its officers and men met their death.

Explosion of
the *Maine*,
Feb. 15, 1898.

"A wave of fierce wrath swept over the American peo-

McKinley
in vain
endeavors
to avert war.

ple." While there was nothing to show that the Spanish government was in any way responsible for the disaster, the people of the United States believed that Spaniards had blown up the ship. "Remember the *Maine*!" was heard all over the country, and the angered people demanded that the United States put an end to Spanish rule in Cuba. Of course, for the United States to interfere would mean war, and President McKinley, wishing to avoid war if possible, again tried to find a peaceful solution of the Cuban question. But his efforts were vain. Spain would not consent to the independence of Cuba, and the people of the United States would be satisfied with nothing less.

The
President's
war message.

655. War with Spain. — Meanwhile the conditions in Cuba grew worse. As President McKinley expressed it, they had become "intolerable." Therefore, on April 11, 1898, the President sent a message to Congress, in which he said, "In the name of humanity, in the name of civilization, and in behalf of endangered American interests which give us the right and duty to speak and to act, the war in Cuba must stop." He asked Congress for power to put an end to the war on the island and to establish for the Cubans a stable government. In answer to the President's message, Congress, on April 20, passed resolutions in effect as follows: (1) The people of Cuba are and of a right ought to be free and independent; (2) The government of the United States demands that Spain relinquish its authority over the island of Cuba and withdraw its forces therefrom; (3) The President of the United States is directed and empowered to use the land and naval forces of the United States and militia of the several states to carry into effect these resolutions; (4) The government of the United States disclaims any intention to secure control

of Cuba, but when peace is restored to Cuba the government of the island shall be left to its people. Such was America's ultimatum. On April 24 Spain declared war against the United States. The United States declared war on the following day.

War
declared,
April 24, 25

656. The American Army. — At the outbreak of the war the regular army of the United States consisted of only about twenty-eight thousand men; and Congress authorized its increase to sixty-one thousand. The President called for a volunteer army of two hundred thousand men. No better evidence of the passing away of sectionalism is needed than the roll of the army raised for the war with Spain. Distinguished ex-Confederate officers received commissions; sons of men who wore the blue and sons of men who wore the gray marched side by side under the Stars and Stripes.¹

Increase of
the army.

The country
united.

657. The Naval Battle at Manila. — The first important engagement of the war took place in the far East. Commodore (later Admiral) Dewey, who commanded the Asiatic squadron of the American navy, was ordered to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet in the Philippine Islands, an archipelago of the Pacific Ocean, then belonging to Spain. Early on the morning of May 1 the American fleet entered the harbor of Manila, the capital of the Philippines. There the Spanish fleet lay at anchor under the protection of forts. The guns of the Spaniards on the fleet and in the forts thundered away at the approaching vessels. The Americans reserved their fire until within

Commodore
Dewey in the
East.

At Manila
harbor.

¹ One of the volunteer cavalry regiments became famous as the "Rough Riders." It was organized with Leonard Wood (now general) as colonel, and Theodore Roosevelt as lieutenant colonel. The regiment was composed mainly of cowboys from the West, though many young men of wealth from the East enlisted in its ranks.

The battle.

close range and then hurled against the enemy a terrific volume of shot and shell. In less than two hours the Americans had sunk three of the Spanish vessels and had set others on fire. Then Dewey withdrew his fleet out of range to the other side of the bay to get more ammunition.



GEORGE DEWEY.

The Spaniards, thinking the Americans had retreated, cheered lustily. But they later saw their mistake. Having procured ammunition from his supply ships and having given his men a good rest and a breakfast, Dewey returned to the combat. In

an hour and a half more the Americans had sunk or burned every Spanish ship and silenced every fort. Not an American vessel was seriously damaged. The Spaniards lost in killed and wounded six hundred and thirty-four men; the Americans had none killed and only eight wounded.

Manila
blockaded.

As there was no army to support Dewey, he did not attempt to take the city, but blockaded the harbor and waited for troops to be sent to his assistance.

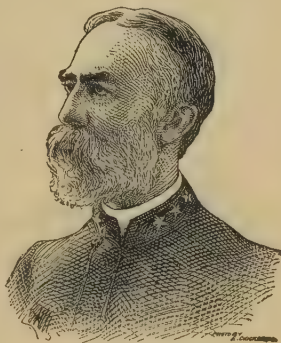
Havana
blockaded.

658. Blockade of Cuba. Cruise of the *Oregon*. Cervera's Fleet. — Before the war had actually begun, the President, in pursuance of the plan to drive the Spaniards from Cuba, had issued a proclamation declaring Havana and certain other Cuban ports in a state of blockade. An American fleet under command of acting Rear Admiral William T. Sampson had been sent to Cuban waters to enforce the blockade.

Shortly after the destruction of the *Maine*, the battleship *Oregon*, then stationed on the Pacific coast, was ordered to join the fleet in the Atlantic. She had sailed from San Francisco about the middle of March and was well on her way around Cape Horn when war was declared. The *Oregon*

Then came news that a Spanish fleet, under Admiral Cervera, had left the Cape Verde Islands and was sailing westward. There was apprehension that this fleet might bombard cities on the Atlantic, and the coast from Florida to Maine was carefully watched by vessels of the American navy. There was apprehension, also, that Cervera's fleet might fall upon the *Oregon* and destroy her before her commander should learn that war had been declared. But Captain Clark, the commander of the *Oregon*, was expecting war, and was prepared at any moment for battle. At a seaport in Brazil he heard that war had been declared, yet he held the *Oregon* to her course. From San Francisco to Key West is fourteen thousand miles; the *Oregon* made the long, hard voyage in two months, and reached the coast of Florida without a bolt or rivet broken, ready to join the blockading squadron on the coast of Cuba. The whole world gave forth its praise for this feat of the *Oregon*.

Cervera's fleet was at last (May 29) known to have reached the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. Commodore (later Rear Admiral) Schley, acting under instructions from Sampson, immediately blockaded the port. Sampson him-



WILLIAM T. SAMPSON.

Cervera's
fleet.

The *Oregon*
reënforces
the Atlantic
fleet.

Santiago
blockaded.

self soon arrived with other vessels and made the blockade more rigid.

659. Hobson and the *Merrimac*.—The entrance to the harbor of Santiago is by a very narrow channel, the approach to which is protected by forts. In hope of closing the channel and preventing, at least temporarily, the escape of the Spanish fleet, Sampson determined to sink a vessel across the mouth of the channel. Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson volunteered to do the work. The collier *Merrimac* was selected as the ship to be sunk. A few men, picked from the scores of volunteers, entered upon an undertaking that every-



WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY.

body thought meant almost certain death.

Shortly before dawn on June 3 Hobson and his brave men started with the *Merrimac* toward the mouth of the harbor. Shells from the Spanish batteries flew around them, but they pushed the vessel into the narrow channel and blew her up with dynamite. As the *Merrimac* went down, the crew clung to a raft. None of them were injured. In the darkness the Spanish fire had missed them. When daylight came they were rescued by a Spanish launch. Cervera received them with praise for their courage and courteously notified Sampson that the prisoners were alive and unhurt.¹

¹ Hobson and his men did not succeed in blocking the channel. The steering gear of the *Merrimac* was shot away, and control of the vessel was lost. It went too far into the harbor and sank lengthwise instead of crosswise.

Hobson's
daring
enterprise.

The
Merrimac
sunk.

Cervera's
chivalrous
conduct.

660. The Land Battle of Santiago. — Sampson, keeping up a stringent blockade of the harbor of Santiago, awaited the arrival of troops needed to take the city. On June 16 an army of seventeen thousand men, under General William R. Shafter, sailed on transports from Tampa, Florida, and on June 20 came in sight of Santiago. The landing was made a short distance east of the city. The cavalry, under General Joseph Wheeler, a soldier who had served with distinction in the Confederate army, advanced, and meeting the Spanish troops at Las Guasimas, drove them back. The army followed the march of the cavalry, but its progress was slow, as it had to move along two narrow trails through forest and underbrush.

General
Shafter's
army at
Santiago.

The cavalry



JOSEPH WHEELER.

Meanwhile the Spaniards were strengthening their intrenchments and rifle pits. The strongest positions on the Spanish line were the fortified town of El Caney and the hill of San Juan. On July 1 a division of the American army attacked El Caney, while the main body assaulted San Juan. The Americans charged gallantly, and El Caney and San Juan were taken. Yet there was no rest for the victorious men. All through the night they labored to strengthen the positions they had won. Twice on the next day the Spaniards attacked, but were unable to drive the Americans from the ground from which they themselves had been driven.

Battles at
El Caney and
San Juan
Hill, July 1, 2

661. The Naval Battle of Santiago. — Foreseeing the fall of Santiago, Cervera, on the morning of July 3, dashed

The naval
battle of
Santiago,
July 3.

out of the harbor with his fleet, hoping that some of his vessels might escape. Just then, Sampson's flagship was some miles distant from the rest of his fleet, for he was on his way to hold a conference with General Shafter. Schley, the senior officer in the temporary absence of Sampson, signaled the fleet to "clear for action" and to "close with the enemy." The American vessels lost no time in giving chase. It was a running, rapid fight. In less than four hours every one of the Spanish ships was a wreck. Three hundred and fifty Spaniards were killed or drowned. Cervera and more than fifteen hundred of his officers and seamen were taken prisoners. The Americans had only one man killed and one wounded, and their ships suffered little damage.

Surrender
of the
Spaniards.

On July 17 Santiago, with a large part of eastern Cuba and about twenty-four thousand soldiers, was surrendered to the American army.

Invasion of
Porto Rico.

662. The Porto Rican Campaign. The Protocol. The Capture of Manila. — Late in July General Nelson A. Miles, commander-in-chief of the army, invaded Porto Rico. Moving rapidly into the interior, his army was taking one town after another, when a protocol, or preliminary treaty of peace, was signed. Hostilities ceased immediately.

The protocol,
Aug. 12.

Manila falls,
Aug. 13.

Spain, through the French minister at Washington, had asked for peace, and the protocol was signed on August 12. Before news of the cessation of hostilities could reach the Philippines the American troops sent to Dewey's assistance had captured Manila (August 13).

Peace made,
Dec. 10.

663. Treaty of Peace. — A formal treaty of peace was signed at Paris on December 10, 1898. By the treaty Spain agreed to evacuate Cuba and cede to the United States (1) Porto Rico, and other islands of the West Indies then under Spanish sovereignty; (2) Guam, one of the

Ladrone or Marianne Islands of the Pacific Ocean, which the United States had captured in the war; and (3) the Philippine Islands. The treaty provided that the United States should pay to Spain twenty million dollars. In the world which Columbus discovered for Spain the treaty left that country not one foot of territory.¹

Terms of
the treaty

664. Annexation of Hawaii.—While the war was in progress, Hawaii was annexed to the United States. The great naval battle at Manila had drawn attention to the importance of the Hawaiian Islands as a base for naval operations in the Pacific. Therefore, on July 6, 1898, Congress agreed to annexation.²

Hawaii.

¹ Porto Rico has an area larger than Delaware, but smaller than Connecticut, and a population almost equal to both. The whites compose about half the population. The principal products are sugar, coffee, tobacco, and maize. Congress has given the island a territorial government.

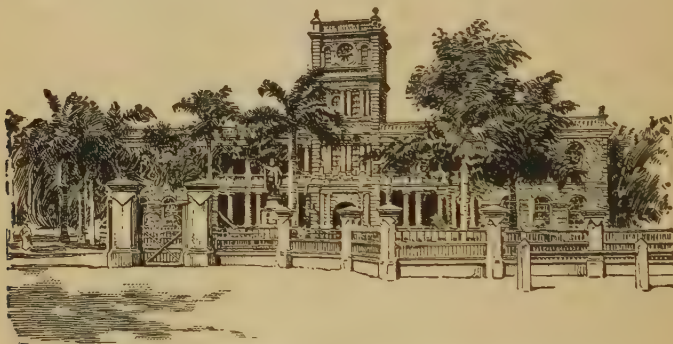
The Philippines consist of fifteen hundred or more islands, most of them small. The total area of the islands is estimated to be a little greater than that of the state of Nevada. The inhabitants are mostly of the Malay type. Estimates of the population vary from six million to ten million. Only about twenty-five thousand are Europeans. The largest island is Luzon, nearly double the size of New England. Manila, which is situated on this island, has a population of about two hundred and fifty thousand and one of the best harbors in the Pacific. The chief products of the Philippines are tobacco, hemp, coffee, sugar, cocoa, and rice.

Guam has an area of from one hundred and fifty to two hundred and fifty square miles and has about nine thousand inhabitants. It is the largest of the Ladrone or Marianne Islands, and is settled mostly by people from the Philippines. The soil is fertile, producing rice, corn, sugar cane, indigo, and cotton, besides tropical fruits.

² The Hawaiian Islands are twelve in number, and their total area is about equal to that of Connecticut and Rhode Island combined. The population is about one hundred thousand, mostly native Hawaiians, Chinese, and Japanese. The white population, though as yet small, is rapidly increasing. Sugar is the main product. Rice, bananas, and wool are also produced. Honolulu, the chief city and capital, has a good harbor and a population of twenty-two thousand. The United States organized a territorial form of government for the islands in 1900.

The results of
the war with
Spain.

665. Losses of the War. Results. — The total number of Americans killed in battle was less than three hundred; the total number of wounded less than sixteen hundred. Perhaps no war has ever been attended with a smaller loss of life, yet its results were wide-reaching. Begun solely for the liberation of Cuba, the war brought a great change of policy for the United States. Up to this time the



SENATE AND LEGISLATIVE BUILDINGS, HONOLULU, HAWAII.

republic of the United States had confined itself to the North American continent, and with the exception of Alaska, had acquired only contiguous territory, which could be settled by Americans and made into states of the Union. As a result of the Spanish War, the republic, like the nations of Europe, has reached out and acquired possessions in distant seas. It has become a world power.

Reasons of
the
opposition.

666. Opposition to Expansion. — But the distant islands were not acquired without considerable opposition in the United States. Those who opposed the action of the government in taking control of them did so on three grounds: (1) the inhabitants of the islands would never become fit for citizenship; (2) to govern them and not make them citizens would be contrary to the principles of

the Declaration of Independence; (3) the holding of distant territory would involve the United States in the quarrels and wars of the powers of Europe. The opposition was chiefly directed against holding the Philippines. On the other hand, it was asserted that it was the duty of the United States to care for the lands and peoples falling to them as the result of war; that it would be wrong to turn these peoples over to the misrule of Spain, or to leave them to govern themselves, when they were incapable of self-government. Those who advocated holding the islands were called expansionists, or imperialists; those who opposed, anti-imperialists.

The contrary
argument.

In the contest in the Senate over the ratification of the treaty, which lasted two months, the expansionists won; yet the result was close, the treaty having been ratified by only two more votes than were necessary.

Treaty
ratified.

667. Wake Island. Samoan Islands.—In 1899 the United States took possession of Wake Island. This is a small island in the Pacific, about two thousand miles west of Hawaii. The American flag had been raised on the island while the war was in progress.

Wake Island.

For some years the United States, Great Britain, and Germany had joined in a protectorate over the Samoan Islands, an archipelago in the South Pacific Ocean lying in an almost direct line between San Francisco and Australia. In 1899 the three powers agreed upon a treaty whereby the United States acquired the island of Tutuila and five smaller islands, and Germany the rest.¹

The Samoan
group.

Tutuila.

¹ The six islands of the Samoan group that fell to the United States have a total area about one third that of Rhode Island, and their population is about five thousand. The inhabitants are of the Malay type. The chief products are copra, cotton, and coffee. The bay of Pago-Pago, on the island of Tutuila, is one of the finest harbors of the world.

The Filipino
insurgents.

Aguinaldo.

Aguinaldo
captured.

The greatest
catastrophe
in American
history.

668. Insurrection in the Philippines. — The natives of the Philippine Islands had frequently rebelled against the Spanish government, for they liked the rule of the Spaniards no more than did the Cubans. After Dewey's fleet had blockaded the harbor of Manila a force of Philippine insurgents surrounded the city by land, but before Manila had been captured by the Americans, the insurgents under the leadership of Don Emilio Aguinaldo proclaimed a Philippine republic. On February 4, 1899, two days before the treaty between the United States and Spain was ratified by the Senate, a skirmish occurred between the insurgents and the American troops on the outskirts of Manila. War followed. Though there was no important battle, more than a thousand skirmishes occurred. The war was practically ended in March, 1901, by the capture of Aguinaldo. The insurgents represented only a small minority of the people of the Philippines. On July 4, 1901, a civil government was established for the islands.

669. The Galveston Disaster. — On September 8, 1900, a tornado struck the city of Galveston, Texas, bringing in its wake the most terrible tidal wave ever known on the coast of the United States. Galveston is situated on an island only a few feet above sea level. The storm raised the waves many feet above high-tide mark, and the flood, sweeping over the island, submerged the city. About seven thousand lives were lost and about seventeen million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. The people of the entire country, as on former occasions of disaster, sent aid to the sufferers.

670. Important Laws. — Among the important laws enacted in McKinley's administration were: (1) a new tariff law, known as the Dingley Tariff, passed in 1897, which raised the average rate of duty higher than that of any

previous tariff; (2) the gold standard act, passed in 1900, which made the gold dollar the standard of value.

671. McKinley Reëlected. — At the election of 1900 The candidates, McKinley was again the candidate of the Republicans for President. Their candidate for Vice President was Theodore Roosevelt of New York. The Democrats again nominated William J. Bryan, naming for the Vice Presidency Adlai E. Stevenson, who had been Vice President during Cleveland's second administration. The People's party supported the Democratic nominees. The Republicans indorsed the administration's policy toward the insular possessions. The Democrats denounced as imperialistic the policy of holding distant islands, and opposed the retention of the Philippines longer than necessary to give the islands a stable government. They endeavored to make "imperialism" the leading issue, but as they had again demanded the free coinage of silver, the money question became, as in the preceding presidential election, the real issue. The Republicans elected their candidates McKinley and Roosevelt by a greater majority than in the preceding election.

672. Assassination of McKinley. — In 1901 an exposition was held in Buffalo, New York. President McKinley visited the fair, and on September 6, 1901, while holding a reception in a building on the grounds, was shot twice by an anarchist who had approached him under the pretense of desiring to shake his hand. As a result of his wounds, the President died on September 14. Death of President McKinley, Sept. 14, 1901

On the afternoon of the same day Vice President Theodore Roosevelt assumed the duties of chief magistrate.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

652. THE CUBAN WAR.—Spanish abuses; insurrection; reconcentration.
653. RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH CUBA.—Dangers to United States; industrial interests; sympathy.
654. THE "MAINE."
655. WAR WITH SPAIN.—The President's message; resolutions of Congress; war declared.
656. THE AMERICAN ARMY.—The country united.
657. THE NAVAL BATTLE AT MANILA.—Dewey destroys the Spanish fleet.
658. NAVAL MOVEMENTS AT CUBA.—The blockade; the cruise of the *Oregon*; Cervera's fleet.
659. HOBSON AND THE "MERRIMAC."
- 660-661. SANTIAGO.—The land battle, Las Guasimas, El Caney, San Juan; the naval battle; the surrender.
662. THE PORTO RICAN CAMPAIGN. THE PROTOCOL. MANILA CAPTURED.
663. TREATY OF PEACE.—Terms; result to Spain.
664. ANNEXATION OF HAWAII.
665. LOSSES OF THE WAR. RESULTS.—Change in American policy.
666. OPPOSITION TO EXPANSION.—Threefold objection; arguments of expansionists; the result.
667. WAKE ISLAND. SAMOAN ISLANDS.
668. INSURRECTION IN THE PHILIPPINES.—Aguinaldo; a civil government.
669. THE GALVESTON DISASTER.
670. IMPORTANT LAWS.—The Dingley Tariff; the gold standard.
671. MCKINLEY REELECTED.—"Imperialism"; money the real issue.
672. ASSASSINATION OF MCKINLEY.

CHAPTER LII

ADMINISTRATION OF THEODORE ROOSEVELT

(TWENTY-SIXTH PRESIDENT, 1901-1909)

673. The Republic of Cuba. —

On the first day of January, 1899, Spain formally relinquished Cuba. The United States established a military government to continue until the island should recover sufficiently from the effects of the war for the people to set up a government for themselves. Under the careful administration of the United States military authorities, order was soon restored in Cuba; courts and schools were reopened, industries were revived, and the cities were cleansed and provided with sewerage systems that quickly prevented the scourge of disease, especially of yellow fever. In 1901 the Cubans adopted a Constitution for the new republic, and early in 1902 the United States troops withdrew from the island, leaving to the people the management of their own affairs.



THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT was born in New York city, October 27, 1858. When only twenty-eight years old he was the Republican candidate for mayor of New York. He was a member of the United States Civil Service Commission, 1889-1895, and president of the Board of Police Commissioners for the city of New York, 1895-1897. He was appointed Assistant Secretary of the Navy in 1897. On the outbreak of the war with Spain, he resigned to become lieutenant colonel of the First Regiment of Volunteer Cavalry, more commonly known as the "Rough Riders." Returning from the war with a well-earned distinction for gallantry, he was, in 1898, elected to the governorship of New York, and was holding this office when he was nominated for the Vice Presidency.

Spanish
troops
withdrawn
from Cuba.

The Cuban
constitution.

United States
troops
withdrawn

674. The Trusts. — Toward the close of the last century combinations of capital began to be made on a gigantic scale. Corporations, which were large already, consolidated. Laws passed by the United States and the several states against these "trusts" have not succeeded in putting a stop to them. By buying up smaller concerns, or forcing them out of the market, they have in a large measure secured control of the business of the country, and have in many instances increased prices. On the other hand, the repeated strikes of the laboring men, by shutting down the factories and mines, have done their part toward causing prices to rise. The surest solution of the contest between capital and labor is believed to be the coöperative plan, whereby the employer and the employed share in the profits; but until such a system is generally adopted, hope may be found in arbitration.

Methods of
the trusts.

Methods of
the strikers.

The remedy.

The great
coal strike.

675. The Great Coal Strike. — In 1902 the miners of anthracite coal in Pennsylvania went out on a strike. Nearly one hundred and fifty thousand men quit work. The question was chiefly the matter of wages. The strike lasted five months, and during that time the mines were practically closed. The supply of hard coal already mined soon became so reduced that in many places the price rose from five dollars to twenty-eight dollars and thirty dollars per ton. Great distress ensued throughout the country. The President, to relieve the situation, suggested to the mine owners and the strikers that all questions at issue between them be settled by a commission appointed by himself. The suggestion was agreed upon. The commission, after an exhaustive investigation, presented a plan of settlement which was accepted by the contending parties.

Arbitration.

676. Wireless Telegraphy. — For some years it had been known that electric messages could be sent a short distance

without the use of wires. In 1901 Marconi, an Italian scientist, sent a message across the Atlantic by means of his wireless system. In 1902, having erected two stations in America, one on Cape Breton Island and the other on the coast of Massachusetts, he again sent a message across the Atlantic. Very soon steamships crossing the Atlantic began using wireless telegraphy for making communications at sea.

Marconi

677. The Pacific Cable. — In 1903 a cable was completed from San Francisco to Manila, in the Philippines, by way of Honolulu, Hawaii. On July 4, President Roosevelt sent over this cable the first message around the world.

A cable to Manila.

678. The Isthmian Canal. The Republic of Panama. — For many years the feasibility of constructing a canal through the narrow neck of land connecting North America and South America has been a matter of much interest to the people of the United States. Such a canal would be of great commercial value to the world, and especially to this country. It would give sea-going vessels a route between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts much shorter than the route by Cape Horn. The demand for the canal has always been accompanied with the demand that the United States government should control it, lest in time of war it should be used to the disadvantage of this country. Some persons favored the Nicaragua route; others the route across Panama.

Passage to India to be dug.

The respective routes proposed.

A French company had endeavored to construct a canal across Panama; but the company failing, the work had been abandoned. A new company purchased the unfinished canal and offered to sell to the United States its franchises and property rights for forty million dollars. In 1902 Congress agreed to make the purchase from the French company and authorized the President to acquire

The French company's franchise.

The State of
Panama.

from the Republic of Colombia, in which Panama was then a state, the right of way for the canal, and the control of a certain amount of adjacent territory. Early in 1903 a treaty was signed between representatives of the United States of America and those of the Republic of Colombia, whereby Colombia was to make the grants and to receive in return the sum of ten million dollars and after the expiration of nine years an annual rental of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. But the congress of Colombia rejected the treaty.

Panama
secedes from
the Republic
of Colombia.

The treaty
for the canal.

The people of the State of Panama were dissatisfied with the action of the Colombian congress, and on November 3, 1903, the state was declared independent of Colombia. The withdrawal of Panama from the confederation of Colombia occurred without bloodshed, the United States landing troops to protect the transit of business across the isthmus. The new republic was recognized by the United States and other governments. A treaty was promptly made between Panama and the United States for the construction of the canal on the terms previously offered to Colombia.

679. The Baltimore Fire. — On February 7, 1904, fire swept the business portion of the city of Baltimore, destroying property to the value of about one hundred million dollars. Except the Chicago fire of 1871, this is the most costly conflagration that had ever visited an American city. From every section of the country expressions of sympathy were sent to the stricken city; offers of assistance were promptly made, but the citizens of Baltimore, relying upon their own energies, immediately made ready to rebuild the waste places.

The
St. Louis
Fair.

680. The St. Louis Fair. — In 1904 a world's fair was held in St. Louis to commemorate the one hundredth anniversary of the purchase (1803) of the Louisiana territory

from France. The fair was twice the size of the world's fair held in Chicago in 1893 (see Sec. 644); in fact, it was the greatest fair ever held in any country. Its magnificent display showed the progress the world had made in the eleven years that had followed the fair held in Chicago.

681. Presidential Election. — In the presidential election of 1904 the Republicans supported Theodore Roosevelt for President and Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana for Vice President. The Democratic nominees were Alton B. Parker of New York and Henry G. Davis of West Virginia. The election resulted in the choice of Roosevelt and Fairbanks by a large majority.

Presidential
Election

682. The San Francisco Earthquake. — Early on the morning of April 18, 1906, San Francisco suffered the greatest calamity of its kind that has ever visited this country. An earthquake caused strong structures to topple to the ground as if they were built of cards. The ruins caught fire in widely separate places. The fires, growing until they met, formed an immense conflagration that threatened to devour what the shock had not destroyed. The earthquake shock had broken the water-mains, and the fire engines were useless. Two thirds of San Francisco, including all of the business section, became a mass of ruins. Hundreds of lives were lost, many thousands of persons were made homeless, and millions upon millions of dollars' worth of property was destroyed. Men, women, and children crowded into the parks, where they slept in tents and lived upon rations supplied by the government. The whole country, moved by the great catastrophe, hurried money, food, and clothing to the sufferers. Congress made a large appropriation for their relief. With a bravery that gained the admiration of the world, the inhabitants of San Francisco at once determined to rebuild their city.

The San
Francisco
Earthquake

The earthquake affected a large part of California; lives were lost and much property was destroyed.

683. Military Occupation of Cuba. — The government which the people of Cuba established for themselves prospered for a while after the withdrawal of the United States troops in 1902. (See Sec. 673.) But in 1906 an insurrection broke out; the president resigned after calling upon the United States to put down the trouble; and thus federal military authority was restored to the island.

684. Admission of Oklahoma. — In 1907 Oklahoma, the forty-sixth State, was admitted into the Union. It includes what was the Territory of Oklahoma and Indian Territory.

685. Presidential Election. — In the election of 1908 the Republican nominees were William H. Taft, of Ohio, for President, and James S. Sherman, of New York, for Vice-President. The Democrats for the third time nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, for President. Their candidate for Vice-President was John W. Kern, of Indiana. Taft and Sherman were elected by a large majority.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 673. THE REPUBLIC OF CUBA. — A military government; improvements.
- 674. THE TRUSTS. — Conflict between labor and capital.
- 675. THE GREAT COAL STRIKE.
- 676. WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.
- 677. THE PACIFIC CABLE.
- 678. THE PANAMA CANAL. — The State of Panama.
- 679. THE BALTIMORE FIRE.
- 680. THE ST. LOUIS FAIR.
- 681. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.
- 682. THE SAN FRANCISCO EARTHQUAKE.
- 683. MILITARY OCCUPATION OF CUBA.
- 684. ADMISSION OF OKLAHOMA.
- 685. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

CHAPTER LIII

ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM H. TAFT

(TWENTY-SEVENTH PRESIDENT, 1909-1913)

686. Second Evacuation of Cuba.—The United States troops which, in 1902, had been sent for a second time to Cuba for the purpose of restoring order to the island (see Sec. 683) were withdrawn in 1909. During the seven years that the United States again controlled Cuba, conditions on the island were greatly improved. Good roads were built, harbors were dredged, and much other public work was done. The United States government retired from control of the island as soon as it became evident that conditions had so improved that the Cubans could manage their affairs without outside assistance.

687. Census of 1910.—The thirteenth census of the United States, taken in 1910, shows that in that year there were nearly ninety-two mil-



United States
troops with-
drawn from
Cuba.

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT was born in Cincinnati, September 15, 1857. He graduated at Yale University and practiced law in Cincinnati. He has held many judicial positions, among them judge of the superior court of Ohio and judge of the circuit court of the United States. President Roosevelt appointed him first civil governor of the Philippine Islands, a position which he held for three years. From 1904 to 1908 he was Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Roosevelt.

Census of
1910.

lion persons living in the United States proper. Including the inhabitants of Alaska and of our insular possessions, the population of our country now exceeds one hundred million.

Postal sav-
ings banks
established.

688. Postal Savings Banks; Parcel Post.—Congress passed in 1910 a law establishing the postal savings bank system. The purpose of the law is to enable persons of small earnings to deposit their savings with the United States government for safe keeping. In every State of the Union there are now post-offices designated by the government to receive deposits on which interest is paid.

The parcel
post.

Following the establishment of the postal savings bank system the government decided to use the post-office also for conducting the express business. In 1913 the parcel post system was established. For many years the government had allowed a few kinds of merchandise of very light weight to be sent by mail, but under the parcel post system one can now send by mail at very cheap rates nearly everything (within certain limits for weight, size, and shape of the package) that the express companies carry. The parcel post has proved of great benefit. Through the post-office the merchant sends goods to a customer in another town, the farmer sends his produce to market, and the people in general enjoy a convenient and cheap method of sending and receiving merchandise.

New Mexico
and Arizona
admitted as
states.

689. New States.—In 1912 New Mexico, the forty-seventh, and Arizona, the forty-eighth State, were admitted into the Union. With the admission of New Mexico and Arizona all the territory within the bounds of the United States proper has been converted into States, except the District of Columbia, in which Washington, the federal capital, is located, and which, under a provision of the Constitution, must always remain under the direct control of the federal government.

690. Presidential Election of 1912. — In the presidential election of 1912 the Republicans renominated Taft and Sherman for President and Vice President respectively. The Democrats nominated Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey and Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana. A new party, called Progressive and composed mainly of former Republicans, nominated ex-President Roosevelt for President, and Hiram W. Johnson of California for Vice President. The election resulted in the choice of Wilson and Marshall by a large vote. . . . Presidential election.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- 686. CUBA. — The United States, for a second time, withdraws from control of the island.
- 687. THE THIRTEENTH CENSUS.
- 688. POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS ; PARCEL POST. — Post-offices used as savings banks for small deposits. Parcel post established.
- 689. NEW STATES. — New Mexico and Arizona.
- 690. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION OF 1912. — Wilson and Marshall elected.

CHAPTER LIV

ADMINISTRATION OF WOODROW WILSON

(TWENTY-EIGHTH PRESIDENT, 1913-)

Important
legislation.



WOODROW WILSON.

WOODROW WILSON was born in Staunton, Va., Dec. 28, 1856. He graduated at Princeton University, studied law, and practiced in Atlanta. In 1885 he became a professor at Bryn Mawr College, later at Wesleyan University, and at Princeton, of which he was made president in 1911. He was elected governor of New Jersey in 1911 and served until 1913.

Reduction of
the tariff:
1913.

United States from other countries—the high protective tariff which had prevailed for a number of years—was re-

691. Important Legislation.

—In the election of 1912 the Democrats had, for the first time in twenty years, secured complete control of the government—they had elected the President and had a majority in both houses of Congress; consequently, the people looked to the new administration to bring about wished-for reforms. President Wilson was in thorough sympathy with the people and he urged upon Congress the importance of enacting laws to carry out their wishes.

Within two years after his inauguration, Congress had enacted the following laws:

The Underwood Tariff Law.—The heavy taxes levied upon goods brought into the

garded, since it tended to shut out competition from other countries, as one of the chief aids to monopoly. A law reducing the tariff taxes was enacted under the leadership of Oscar W. Underwood, a member of Congress from Alabama.

The Currency Law.— This law, commonly known as the reserve bank law, provides for establishing reserve banks in twelve cities situated in different parts of the country. Every national bank deposits a certain amount of its funds in the reserve bank of its district. The main purpose of the law is to enable the reserve banks to issue, in time of panic, sufficient currency to meet the needs of business.

The reserve
bank system.

692. Trouble with Mexico.— Except for an intermission of a few years, Porfirio Diaz had been President of Mexico since 1877. The country had prospered, largely because it was at peace. Diaz welcomed foreign manufacturers and capitalists, many of whom established thriving industries, opened mines, and built railroads. Many free public schools were established, —although not nearly as many as were needed, —and a part of the Indian population, generally called *peons*, learned to read. The peons began to question the distribution of land, the larger part of which had been given by the Spanish crown to the original Spanish conquerors of the country, these grants of land having passed at their death either to their heirs or to the Church. The wealthy landowners would not sell their lands, and the peons were compelled to pay excessive rents.

Mexico
under Diaz.

In 1910 Francisco I. Madero, although himself a member of the wealthy class, by promising free land to the peons, fomented a revolution and led an army against President Diaz. In the battles that followed, the revolutionists were so successful that Diaz resigned the presidency and left Mexico. Thereupon, Madero was made President (1911). But, as he was unable to keep the prom-

Revolution
in Mexico.

ises he had made to the peons, President Madero was soon confronted with counter revolutions, some instigated by the wealthy class and others by the peons themselves.

Usurpation
of Huerta.

Early in 1913, Victoriano Huerta, an officer of Madero's army, seized control of the government. Madero was thrown into prison and was, a few days later, killed by his guards. Huerta was accused of being the instigator of the deed. The remnant of Madero's followers named Venustiano Carranza as their President, and fighting was renewed. As many of the battles were fought near the line between the United States and Mexico, not infrequently shots were fired into American territory. Some American citizens were killed, and much American property in Mexico was seized or destroyed by one faction or the other. Many persons in the United States thought that our government should interfere, not only with the hope of bringing peace to the distracted country, but also to protect American lives and American interests. Some thought that the United States should recognize Huerta — who had, meanwhile, been formally elected President — and thus help him build up a stable government for Mexico.

Wilson re-
fuses to
recognize
Huerta.

Such was the situation when Woodrow Wilson became President of the United States. President Wilson, regarding Huerta responsible for the murder of Madero, refused to recognize him as President of Mexico. Furthermore, President Wilson refused to interfere between the rival factions and advised all Americans in Mexico to return home. The civil war in Mexico continued.

Americans
occupy
Vera Cruz.

Early in 1914, several sailors from an American war vessel were arrested by a petty officer of the Huerta forces, although they were set at liberty a few hours later by his superior. Demand was immediately made by our government that the Mexican government should formally apolo-

gize for the illegal arrest and salute the American flag. Huerta did apologize but refused to fire the salute. Quick action followed. An American force seized Vera Cruz, the chief seaport of Mexico. But little fighting was required to obtain complete control of the city, yet nineteen American sailors and soldiers were killed. Great excitement prevailed in the United States, for it was thought that this country would become involved in war with Mexico, but President Wilson did not deem it necessary that the American forces should do more than hold Vera Cruz.

Meanwhile, the Madero faction — now the Carranza faction — had, under the leadership of a former peon, Francisco Villa, defeated the Huerta forces in battle after battle. In the summer of 1914, Huerta resigned the Presidency and left the country. Soon afterward the United States government withdrew its troops from Vera Cruz.

Americans
withdraw
from Vera
Cruz.

Carranza, as acting President, entered the city of Mexico. Soon, however, he and General Villa quarrelled. Villa then proclaimed himself President, but Carranza refused to surrender the office. Another war, this time between the followers of Carranza and the followers of Villa, broke out, and peace to the harassed country still seems far off.

Rivalry
between
Carranza
and Villa.

693. The Panama Canal and the Panama Exposition. — The year 1914 marked the completion of the work of cutting a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. This gigantic undertaking was begun by the United States ten years previously (see Section 678) and was completed after an expenditure of more than three hundred million dollars.

Completion
of the Pan-
ama Canal.

While the United States owns and operates the canal, its use is open to all nations. It is impossible to estimate the value of the canal to the commerce of the world and especially to the United States. Heretofore, in a voyage from an Atlantic port of North America to ports on the

What the
canal means
to commerce.

Pacific a ship had to sail around the continent of South America. By passing through the canal the voyage from New York to San Francisco is shortened 8000 miles.

The Panama Exposition. In celebration of the completion of the canal the Panama-Pacific International Exposition was held in San Francisco in 1915. More than fifty million dollars was spent in getting the fair ready for opening. The exposition continued for nearly a year and it was a fitting tribute to the great benefit that the Panama Canal brings to commerce.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

691. IMPORTANT LEGISLATION.

692. TROUBLE WITH MEXICO.

693. THE PANAMA CANAL AND THE PANAMA EXPOSITION.

CHAPTER LV

THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR

ADMINISTRATION OF WOODROW WILSON (*Continued*)

694. Germany Seeks to Dominate the World. — In the summer of 1914 the greatest war of history broke out in Europe. Because so many nations became involved in the terrible conflict it became known as the World War.

Europe had been drifting toward the war for many years. By the end of the nineteenth century Germany had become the greatest military power of Europe. Commercially and industrially she was second only to Great Britain and was beginning to rival that country. Prosperity had made the Germans believe that they were superior to all other peoples. Their emperor, or kaiser, and the small so-called upper class, who ruled in an autocratic manner, easily persuaded the people that their success was due to their form of government and that on account of their superiority it was their mission to dominate the world. If the Germans had succeeded in their ambition it would have meant the end of the democratic governments that had arisen elsewhere — hence the war was a contest between democracy and autocracy.

The military power of Germany had been built upon a system of conscription that required every able-bodied young man to serve in the army for a certain number of years, and to be ready during another period of years to join the army in time of war. Other nations of conti-

The rise of
Germany to
power.

Democracy
vs.
autocracy.

Con-
scription

mental Europe, fearing Germany's military power, had strengthened their armies through conscription. Great Britain, being an island, regarded her navy as her best defense. As she had built warships faster than Germany could build them, she retained her position as the greatest naval power of the world.

The superiority of the British navy did not stop the Germans in their scheme to rule, for they did not believe that Great Britain would go to war until her interests were directly affected. They thought that they could, with Austria as their ally, crush the other powers of continental Europe; and later they would bring Great Britain to her knees.

695. War Begins. — Early in August, 1914, Germany declared war against Russia and the latter's ally, France. With her great army Germany hoped to overwhelm France quickly and then to defeat Russia with the aid of the Austrian army. For a rapid descent upon France the German army marched into Belgium. This first act of war on the part of Germany, a violation of a pledge that should have been held sacred, had momentous results. Belgium, resisting invasion, entered the war; Great Britain, one of the powers pledged to protect Belgium's neutrality, declared war upon Germany; and the neutral nations of the world condemned Germany's breach of faith.

Belgium
invaded.

696. The Western Front. — Belgium's small army fought so stubbornly that time was given the French and British armies to come up. The German army, still the stronger in men, guns, and ammunition, forced the Allies — as those fighting against Germany came to be called¹ — far into France. When, however, the river Marne was

¹ Germany and the nations fighting with her were called the Central Powers.

reached at a point very near Paris, the Allies, under the French general Joseph J. D. Joffre, turned upon the invaders (September 6, 1914) and drove them back into Belgium and northern France.

First battle
of the Marne.

The opposing armies on the western front dug deep trenches, running six hundred miles, from Switzerland through France and Belgium to the North Sea. For three years and more the armies vainly tried by assaults to drive each other from the trenches. The assaults often lasted for months, the loss of men reaching hundreds of thousands. The heroic stand of the Belgians at the Yser, the British at Ypres, and the French at Verdun will forever be emblazoned on the pages of history.

Trench
warfare.

697. On Other Fronts. — Meanwhile the war had spread to other countries. Italy and some of the small nations of Europe joined the Allies, while Turkey and Bulgaria took the side of Germany and Austria. Japan, up to this time the largest nation outside of Europe to enter the war, also joined the Allies. Japan did not participate in the European phases of the war, but took care of the interests of the Allies in the far East.

Though the armies on the western front grappled in a seeming deadlock, yet the armies of Germany and her associates on other fronts in Europe gained the advantage and overran much of Russia, part of Italy, and practically all of Serbia, Roumania, and Montenegro.

698. The Russian Revolution. — The chief cause of Germany's success on the eastern front was the condition of Russia. Many officials of the Russian government were of German blood. They sympathized with Germany and secretly hampered the movements of the Russian army. The people of Russia, outraged at the treachery, rose in revolution and overthrew the imperial government. The

The czar
overthrown.

czar was forced to abdicate, and a provisional government was organized in the interest of the people. Though it was announced that Russia would continue in the war, the country was in a condition too distracted to put forth formidable opposition to Germany.

German
cruelties.

699. Concern of America. — The whole world watched with the deepest interest and anxiety the progress of the war. As news of the awful death toll came over telegraph and cable, a pall fell upon the hearts of people of the remotest regions. Cruelties committed by Germany and the nations fighting with her filled to overflowing the bitter cup. Germany ravaged, contrary to the rules of warfare, the invaded territory of France, Belgium, and Poland, and otherwise harassed the defenceless inhabitants. Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey followed the same course in invaded sections of eastern Europe. The world lost the last shred of respect for nations guilty of such conduct.

All the
world af-
fected by the
War.

The war affected the whole world also in a material way. By disrupting the world's trade it caused everywhere high prices and many other inconveniences. On account of our great commerce, the trade of the United States was seriously hampered.

Americans
sympathize
with the
Allies.

From the first most Americans sympathized with the Allies because they were fighting for democracy. Their sympathy for the Allies increased as the Germans continued their cruelties. Then came acts of Germany that directly involved the United States. Great Britain's navy had blockaded Germany to prevent ammunition and other supplies from reaching the German army. Meanwhile Americans, as they had a right to do, sold ammunition to the Allies. Germany became very angry because our government refused to stop its citizens from trading in munitions with her enemies, and German spies were sent

to the United States to break up by secret and illegal methods the traffic in war supplies. The spies sought to destroy plants making munitions and to blow up vessels carrying them to the Allies. They also tried to foment strikes among the laborers employed in the plants and attempted to secure the influence of German-Americans to persuade our government to do as Germany wished. As a rule the laboring people and the German-Americans remained loyal, and the work of the German spies served only to deepen the feeling in America against Germany.

German
spies in
America.

700. Germany's Submarine Warfare. — Next, Germany, holding that the British blockade was illegal, declared that she would destroy the commerce of her enemies by use of the submarine. She hoped to starve out the English people because their little island does not, even in time of peace, grow enough foodstuffs to support them.

International law demands that before a merchant ship is sunk, provision must be made for the safety of the crew and passengers; but the little submarine cannot take care of the crew or passengers of a big ship, and, moreover, the ship might escape if it saw the submarine in time, or it might sink the submarine, which is a very frail vessel. Consequently, Germany announced that her submarines, which can navigate unseen under the surface of the water, would sink without warning the merchant vessels of enemy countries when sighted in the waters around the British Isles.

Germany
violates in-
ternational
law.

701. President Wilson Warns Germany. — Taking the lives of non-combatants in such manner is murder. Americans were very indignant that Germany should threaten to kill them if they should exercise the right they clearly had of sailing the seas on a merchant vessel of any nation. President Wilson promptly notified Germany that she

Submarine
warfare is
murder.

would be held to strict account for injury done by her to a citizen of the United States.

702. Sinking of the *Lusitania*. — Germany treated President Wilson's warning with contempt. On May 7, 1915, the *Lusitania*, a large British passenger ship making a regular trip from New York, was torpedoed and sunk by a submarine off the coast of Ireland, and more than eleven hundred men, women, and children — of whom about one hundred were Americans — were drowned.

Americans
murdered.

The murder of American citizens aroused the wrath of the American people. A great clamor arose that Germany should be punished for her crimes against America. But President Wilson, not wishing that our country should rush into war, sent a note to Germany demanding that she make reparation for the injury to American citizens, and promise not to commit such a crime again. Germany postponed complying with President Wilson's demands, and in the meantime kept up her submarine warfare, causing the loss of other American lives.

Germany in-
sincere in her
promise.

703. Germany's Faithlessness. — President Wilson was persistent in his demand that Germany should stop her illegal submarine warfare. Finally Germany made a promise not to sink any more merchant vessels without warning, but it developed that she was not sincere in her promise. Most of her first fleet of submarines had been captured or destroyed, and while a new fleet was building Germany was willing to be good.

Submarine
warfare
renewed.

Early in 1917, the new fleet of submarines having been completed, Germany announced that she would renew the sinking of merchant ships without warning. Submarine warfare was to be waged on even a greater scale, for neutral as well as belligerent ships were to be sunk, and the zone in which the submarines would operate was ex-

tended so that it covered the waters of the coasts of France and the Mediterranean Sea. Defiance was thus flaunted in the face of America.

704. War with Germany.—All peaceful methods having failed to restrain Germany, President Wilson, on April 2, 1917, appeared before Congress and asked that body to declare that a state of war with Germany existed by reason of that country's acts. He showed that Germany's use of the submarine was a warfare against the world—a warfare of military autocracy against humanity. He urged that the war be waged not for conquest, but for the principle that "the world must be made safe for democracy." On April 6, 1917, Congress responded by declaring war.

"The world must be made safe for democracy."

705. America's Unpreparedness.—Americans are a people who have always wished to avoid becoming a military nation; consequently they were unprepared for war. Indeed, it was because of America's unpreparedness that Germany was willing to risk war with her. German leaders believed, and persuaded the German people to believe, that their submarines would bring an end to the war before America could raise an army, and, even if it did not, the submarines would prevent the American army from reaching Europe.

The United States not a military nation.

706. "Win the War!"—It was important now that America should enter the war actively as soon as possible, for Belgium, Great Britain, France, and Italy, in combat-ing so long the powerful military machine of the Central Powers, had given the flower of their manhood, and Russia, in the throes of revolution, was wavering.

The President, the Congress, and the people immediately set to work to gather together the strength of the nation for the conflict. The United States is the richest and one of the most populous countries, and its resources

The unanimity of the people.

would be used to the utmost limit if necessary. "Win the War" became the slogan of America.

707. Raising the Army.—The first thing to be done was to take steps toward raising an army large enough to be effective in a war of such magnitude. The regular army and the national guard of the several states were used as a nucleus, and as previous wars had shown that volunteering could not be depended upon, Congress passed a conscription law for raising the rest of the men needed.¹ The law required that every man from twenty-one to thirty-one years of age should register. From the list of about ten million men thus obtained, those who were physically disabled, or engaged in pursuits necessary to carrying on the war, or had dependent families, were exempted from service in the army, while the others were held in readiness to be sent to camps to be made soldiers.

The
camps.

The camps, which had all to be built, were located in different parts of the country. When completed they accommodated each about forty thousand men. The camps were cities in themselves, with their numerous buildings for offices and sleeping quarters, warehouses, commissaries, mess halls, and repair shops, and with their graded streets, electric lights, waterworks, fire departments, and telegraph and telephone systems. So many laborers were employed in erecting the buildings and so rapidly did they work that all the camps were completed in the space of a few months.

Training
the men.

Immediately upon the arrival of men in camp their military training was begun. When they had reached a certain degree of fitness, they were sent to Europe for further training near the battle line, and their places in the camps

¹ It will be remembered that in the Civil War both the United States and the Confederate States resorted to conscription. See § 514.

in this country were taken by others who, in their turn, were given training and then sent to Europe.

708. General Pershing in Command. — General John J. Pershing, who had been selected to command the American army in Europe, arrived in France in June, 1917. A few weeks later a small contingent of America's regular army marched through the streets of Paris as a symbol of our promise to the gallant people of France that an American army was coming in force. By the summer of 1918 three quarters of a million American soldiers, most of whom had been civilians a few months before, were in Europe.

709. The Navy. — Fortunately the American navy was in excellent condition. A fleet, under command of Rear Admiral William S. Sims, was promptly sent to European waters, where very soon it was giving valuable aid to the allied fleets in blockading Germany and checking the submarine menace. Ships from the American and British navies convoyed across the ocean the transports carrying our troops, and so carefully did they guard the transports that of the two million and more men sent across in a little more than a year, only a few hundred met death from submarine attack. It was a most remarkable military and naval feat that, in so short a time, a large army was raised, trained, and convoyed three thousand miles over an ocean infested with hostile submarines.



JOHN J. PERSHING.

Americans
march
through
Paris.

The readi-
ness of the
navy.

Our navy had also to guard our long sea coast. That there might be vessels enough for this purpose the navy took over many ships, yachts, and motor boats belonging to citizens. All navy yards for building war vessels were enlarged. The number of seamen was increased to nearly half a million, and camps were erected at various ports for training the recruits.

A mammoth undertaking.

710. Construction Work in France. — Several French seaports were given over for use by the United States. At these ports our government built many docks so as to receive a great number of ships at one time, and rows upon rows of immense warehouses. All the material used in building the docks and warehouses was prepared in this country, shipped to France in parts, and there put together. Our government also built at the ports large freight yards. Locomotives, cars, and rails were sent from America for use on the railroads that carried American troops and supplies from the ports to the battle line.

Hospital ships sunk by submarines.

711. Highest Point of Submarine Warfare. — In 1917 the German submarines reached their highest point of activity. They now waged their warfare most ruthlessly, torpedoing even hospital ships and killing or drowning nurses, sick, and wounded. The submarines sank so many ships carrying food that the allied countries were threatened with starvation. Conditions in France became so serious that not only the people at home, but the brave soldiers in the trenches, were put on very limited rations.

712. "Ships, Ships, More Ships!" — The United States agreed to send food to the allied countries, but to do so ships were needed to take the places of those sunk by the submarines. "Ships, ships, more ships!" came as a cry from Europe to America. The United States government took over the country's shipping. It reduced the number

of ships used in trade with the neutral countries of Europe, brought from the Great Lakes all vessels suitable for ocean service, and withdrew those trading with South America, Australia, and Asia. German vessels that had sought safety in our harbors at the beginning of the war were seized, and Dutch vessels visiting our ports were pressed into service. Still, there were not enough ships. So America began to build. Some ships were built of steel, others of concrete, and still others of wood. Such rapid construction of ships the world had never seen before. One vessel was launched in 27 days after the keel was laid, finished in another 10 days, and, after three days spent in loading, 40 days in all, was sent with a cargo across the Atlantic.

Rapid building of ships.

England was at the same time building ships rapidly. By midsummer of 1918 the United States and England were building ships faster than the submarines could destroy them. Although submarine warfare had failed, yet so close had been the race for a time that the point was dangerously near when the Allies might have been starved into submission.

713. America Feeds the Allied Countries.—Obtaining the foodstuffs necessary for the Allies taxed the United States. Wheat is the main staple of food in Europe, and the Allies needed many million bushels more of this cereal than we ordinarily raise in excess of our own use. Meat, sugar, and dairy products were also needed by the Allies. The government, therefore, made rules regulating the use of these foodstuffs by our people. On certain days Americans abstained from eating wheat and on others from meat. These days were known as "wheatless days" and "meatless days." The supply of sugar and dairy products for each person was also limited. In order to save coal to be

"Wheatless days" and "meatless days."

used as fuel by ships carrying food, heat was on certain days cut off from public buildings and manufacturing plants, and on certain nights the use of electric lights was curtailed. Thus there were also "heatless days" and "lightless nights." By denying themselves food and comforts, Americans were able to feed their brave allies.

714. Government Assumes Control of Business.—The government took control of practically the entire industry of the country. Whatever part of a product the government needed for carrying on the war it used; the people contented themselves with what was left. The kinds of business that were not essential to winning the war were curtailed in their output whenever the raw material they used was needed for military purposes. That traffic might be speeded up, the government took charge of the railroads, and of the express, telegraph, and telephone systems.

715. The Great Cost.—Only the barest outline has been given of what the United States did. The things that the government accomplished far exceeded what most persons believed a nation could do. The cost exceeded twenty billions of dollars. It amounted, of course, to more than it would have done if we had not been compelled to work with such haste. To raise the money the government imposed heavy taxes, and issued bonds known as "Liberty Bonds." The people bought so liberally of the bonds that every issue was oversubscribed.

716. Patriotism of the People.—As the government needed the aid of expert business men in controlling the industry of the country, many leaders of the commercial world laid aside their own affairs to give to the government their time and talent. Laborers in the factories, in the mines, and on the farms vied with one another to produce as fast as possible the necessities of war.

Voluntary organizations rendered valuable aid. The Red Cross sent its nurses to the battle-scarred countries of Europe to care for the wounded and sick and others in distress. The Red Cross also established in nearly every city and town in America chapters among the women to make bandages and knit garments. Other organizations looked after the entertainment and religious welfare of the men in the camps in this country and in the trenches in Europe. They gave the men touches of home life that the government could not give. Prominent among these organizations were the Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, Jewish Welfare Board, War Camp Community Service, American Library Association, and Salvation Army.

Volunteer
organiza-
tions.

The people bore the high taxes, the increased cost of living, the restriction of business, the limitation of food, and the surrender of comforts,—they bore all uncomplainingly, because America had joined the Allies in a war for world democracy, and the war must be won.

Germany had made many miscalculations, but none greater than her prediction that America would count for little in the war.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

694. GERMANY SEEKS TO DOMINATE THE WORLD. — Growth of Germany as a military and commercial nation ; her ambition to rule.
- 695-697. THE WORLD WAR. — Events on the western front ; on other fronts.
698. THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION.
- 699-703. CONCERN OF AMERICA. — German cruelties ; German spies ; German submarine warfare ; sinking of the *Lusitania* ; Germany's faithlessness.
- 704-705. WAR WITH GERMANY DECLARED. — America's unpreparedness.
- 706-716. "WIN THE WAR!" — Raising the army ; work of the navy ; building ships and feeding the Allies ; the great cost ; patriotism of the people.

CHAPTER LVI

END OF THE WORLD WAR

717. The Hindenburg Line (1917). — After two years of unceasing labor Great Britain had raised a large army and manufactured vast quantities of war material, with the result that the Allies had become superior to the Germans on the western front in men, guns, and ammunition. This superiority was shown at the battle of the Somme in the autumn of 1916, when the British, under their commander, General Sir Douglas Haig, succeeded in breaking through the German line on a front of twenty miles, and were stopped in their advance only by bad weather. During the winter the British made preparations to continue the assault upon a large scale as soon as the weather permitted. With the coming of the spring of 1917, however, it was found that the Germans had retreated a considerable distance to a new line, which became known as the Hindenburg line in compliment to the general who had been brought from the eastern front to command the German army in the west.

The
Germans
retire.

British
attack de-
layed.

The withdrawal of the Germans was an adroit military movement. Not only had the Hindenburg line been fortified until it was the strongest on any front, but, since it was much shorter than the line given up, fewer men were required to defend it. Besides, the British would have to spend some months in moving up to the Hindenburg line the immense stores of munitions that they had collected

on the old battle front, and in the meantime their intended assault would be delayed.

The Germans had conducted their retreat most skillfully but in their usual cruel manner. By destroying practically



everything in the area over which they withdrew, they had made it a barren waste.

718. Collapse of Russia. — A severe blow befell the Allies on the eastern front in 1917. The socialists had gained control of Russia. Socialists generally do not approve of war except when waged in the interest of socialism. The moderate members of the party, who were

Socialists in control in Russia.

at first in control, thought that Russia should continue in the war, for they realized that the success of Germany would not only ruin Russia but would crush socialism. Kerensky, one of the ablest of the socialists, who was at the head of the government, used all the force of his eloquence to keep up in Russia the fighting spirit. But the influence of the extreme socialists, who clamored for immediate peace, spread rapidly in the army. Soldiers by the thousands left the battle front. Soon not much was left of the Russian army.

719. Effect on Other Fronts. — The collapse of Russia was quickly felt. A great number of German and Austrian troops left the Russian front to reënforce their armies fighting on the Italian and the French and Belgian fronts. Overwhelmed by the great odds against them, the Italians, who had advanced close to Trieste, were driven back across the mountains to the Piave River in Italy. Venice was threatened, but the Italians, by making a stand on the Piave, saved the beautiful city.

Although they were now confronted by an army much larger than their own, the British under General Haig attempted, while the campaign in Italy was in progress, to smash by a surprise attack the Hindenburg line opposite the town of Cambrai. The attack failed.

720. End of the Year 1917. — With Russia out of the war and with the Central Powers superior in strength on every front, the year 1917 ended with the Allies waiting for the American army to reach France in force.

721. Anarchy in Russia. — Conditions in Russia went from bad to worse. Kerensky was overthrown, and the Bolsheviki, the radical wing of the socialists, got into power. The Bolsheviki are more anarchists than socialists. The socialistic theory is that the government should acquire

Cambrai.

gradually and by purchase the ownership of all industries and conduct them for the benefit of all the people. The Bolsheviki, impatient of this slow and orderly method, seized immediately, without compensation to the owners, railroads, banks, factories, mines, and other industries, and placed them in charge of ignorant and often dishonest persons to conduct, they alleged, for the public good. Great confusion followed. Banks suspended, stores closed, and factories and mines shut down; the railroads, breaking down, could not transport food from regions where it was grown to regions where it was needed. In many places famine threatened.

The
Bolsheviki.

The Bolsheviki never represented more than a small proportion of the Russian people. They gained and held power by terrorism. Many who opposed them met with violent death. No autocratic government was ever more tyrannical; yet, however low Russia had sunk in misery, the blame must be attached to the rule of the czars. The oppression of the masses for centuries had not only made all of them discontented, but had also made some of them radicals of the most extreme type. The people at large, suddenly given their liberty, were unprepared to set up immediately stable self-government, and violent men got control.

Respon-
sibility of
autocratic
government.

722. Russia Surrenders. — German spies and agents had much to do with undermining Russia's power of resistance by spreading Bolshevik doctrines among the Russian people. Leaders of the Bolsheviki, who were secretly in the pay of the Germans, declared the war with Germany at an end, and proceeded to disband what was left of the army. Germany, however, had no intention of accepting the Bolshevik idea that war with Russia was over until she had gained even greater advantage from the sad plight of

The treaty
between the
Germans
and the
Bolsheviki.

that country. German armies penetrated farther and farther into Russian territory. Then, early in 1918, the Bolshevik government agreed to a treaty with Germany whereby Russia gave up an immense stretch of territory extending from Finland, through Poland and Ukrania, to the Black Sea. In the territory passed over to German control were all the best seaports of Russia, all her industrial cities, most of her mineral lands, and much of her grain fields.

723. The Great German Drive. — Though Germany's success on the eastern front seemed overwhelming, the German war lords knew that to hold what they had gained they must win a victorious peace, and to win such a peace they must destroy the allied resistance on the western front before the American army was ready to take an effective part in the war. They realized the fact, which they concealed from the people, that submarine warfare had failed to prevent American soldiers and American war material from arriving in France.

Ludendorff
in command
of the
Germans.

General Ludendorff was selected to command the Germans in the forthcoming campaign. The men brought from Russia, and all that could be spared elsewhere, reënforced the army on the western front for the purpose of throwing against the allied line a great mass of troops that would crush it by sheer weight of numbers. The first blow fell, on March 21, 1918, upon the British, who were unable to withstand such a terrible onslaught and were driven out of their trenches. The falling back of the British compelled all the Allies to leave their trenches and retreat, for otherwise the Germans might have driven a wedge so deep that the allied armies would have been separated. With the trenches left behind, the fighting was now in the open. Valiantly struggling against tre-

mendous odds, the Allies retreated thirty-five miles farther into France.

The Germans had used in the drive their best troops, who were so exhausted by their effort that they had to rest. A month later the Germans again attacked the British in an attempt to reach the ports on the English Channel where they might stop the shipment of men and munitions to France. The British were forced so near to the Channel that General Haig told them that they must fight as if their backs were to the wall, for all would be lost if they retreated farther. The sorely pressed Britons responded by making such a brave stand that the Germans failed to reach the ports.

The British
fighting with
their backs
to the wall.

724. Foch in Supreme Command of the Allies. — Since the beginning of the war the forces of the allied nations had been fighting as separate armies, each with its own commander; and as a consequence their movements often did not fit well together. The Central Powers had from the first followed the wiser plan of having one commander who directed the movements of all their armies. The retreat of the Allies before the great German drive made it plainer than ever that they should be under a supreme commander. All the allied nations agreed upon the French general, Ferdinand Foch, for this important position.



FERDINAND FOCH.

The allies
select a Gen-
eralissimo.

725. The French Driven Back. — When Haig and his

Back to the
Marne.

British troops stopped the drive toward the Channel ports, the Germans again rested for a month; then they struck in mass the French army with the hope of reaching Paris. The French in their turn were compelled to give way before the blow. Fighting step by step they were driven to the river Marne, a few miles from Paris. The Germans were now where they had been when checked in their attempt early in the war to capture the French capital. Their biggest guns threw shells into the city.

The drive had lasted three months and, owing to their method of mass attack, the Germans had lost about five hundred thousand men. Although the loss to the Allies in men was not so great, yet it was enormous, and the situation had become perilous for them. The Germans pushed on across the Marne, and Paris seemed doomed; but at last the French, with the aid of a small force of American marines and infantry who had been rushed to their assistance, were able to hold their ground.

Americans in
their first
battle.

726. Chateau Thierry. — The Americans had been placed near the village of Chateau Thierry, where their thin line was all that stood between the Germans and Paris. Courageously they held the enemy, June 5 and 6, 1918, inflicting upon them heavy losses. This was the first time that Americans had taken an important part in battle, and the way in which they repulsed the Germans showed that, though not veterans, they could be relied upon.

727. Americans Pouring into France. — When the United States entered the war the Allies asked for food as the first need; when the German drive began there came a greater need for quick reinforcements, which the allied countries after four years of exhausting fighting could not furnish. At the request of the Allies the United States

hurried troops over. The situation became a race between Germany trying to win a decisive victory before enough Americans arrived in France to prevent it, and the United States trying to get men there in time.

728. The Second Marne; Turn of the Tide. — When the Germans reached the Marne, nearly two million American soldiers had already landed in France and others were pouring in at the rate of two hundred thousand a month. Those of the longest training — some four hundred thousand — were on the battle line, distributed among British and French troops. Foch believed that the time had come for a counter attack. On July 18 the French and Americans struck the Germans on the flank and promptly drove them back six or eight miles. Following up the attack the French and Americans made farther advance each day. Though the Germans contested stubbornly for every foot of ground they gave up, by the end of July they had been driven away from the Marne. Once more Paris had been saved by a battle fought on this historic stream.

The Germans once more driven from the Marne.

The three months of the German drive had been months of suspense. The world had watched with gravest anxiety the headlong rush of the German hordes, yet hoped that each day would bring it to a stop. When the contest on the Marne resulted in the retreat of the Germans the world breathed freer. America was thrilled by the conduct of her soldiers. In the second Marne a greater number of Americans were engaged than in any previous battle.

729. Foch Continues the Offensive. — Having saved Paris, Foch kept on with his offensive with the view of driving the enemy back into Germany. Ludendorff's use of his best troops in his massed attacks had caused a great slaughter of these veterans, and the force of the sledge-

Attack all
along the
line.

hammer blows had spent the strength of those remaining. Foch adopted the plan of striking at different points simultaneously or in quick succession. In this way the enemy could find no time to rest ; nor could one part of their line give assistance to another. Whether the attacks occurred at adjacent or widely separated points, all were parts of one great battle extending along the whole front of six hundred miles.

730. The Advance on the Center. — The British and the French, the latter assisted by the Americans, continued to assault the Germans on the center of the line. All through August the fighting went on fiercely. By the first week in September the French and Americans had driven the enemy to the line which the French had occupied before the Germans began their drive in the spring.

731. Back to the Hindenburg Line. — Meanwhile the British had attacked farther north. Before the end of August they had pressed back the Germans to the old Hindenburg line and had even pierced the famous line slightly in two or three places.

The first
American
army.

732. St. Mihiel. — A sufficient number of American troops had by this time been trained well enough for them to be used in battle as an organization distinct from the other allied armies. They were formed by General Pershing into the first American army and were placed by General Foch near the southern end of the allied front. In this region the German line was thrust forward in a sharp projection known as the St. Mihiel salient. As long as the enemy held this salient it was a source of danger to allied forces advancing on other sectors. In a battle of three days (September 13-15) the Americans succeeded in wiping out the salient by forcing the Germans back eight miles on a front of thirty miles.

The battle of St. Mihiel — the first that Americans had fought as a separate army — was not large when compared with other battles of the great war; yet in this battle more men were engaged on each side than were engaged on both sides in any battle that an American army had ever fought before. The Germans were beginning to realize their mistake of having held in contempt the fighting qualities of the Americans.

Americans
show their
mettle.

733. Smashing the Hindenburg Line. — The success of the British in reaching the Hindenburg line and of the Americans in abolishing the St. Mihiel salient enabled Foch to press the advance with greater vigor. Ludendorff had hoped to make a stand behind the Hindenburg line, but after a few days of furious battle the British pounded the line to pieces. Driving the Germans before them they captured Cambrai on October 9. American troops, fighting with the British, were the first to break through the Hindenburg line.

Americans
with the
British.

734. Argonne Forest. — After the battle of St. Mihiel the American army advanced on the right of the French. On September 26 the Americans engaged the enemy. Pushing forward they reached the Argonne Forest, where the Germans had placed some of their best troops to protect their railroad communications. Considering the obstacles to be overcome, the battle in the Argonne Forest was one of the most difficult operations of the war. The Americans suffered severe losses as they fought their way through thick woods and undergrowth entangled with barbed wire and infested with machine guns. By the first week in October they had passed beyond the forest. By the middle of the month they had broken the old, fortified line of the Germans and in conjunction with the French army were moving on toward the frontier of Germany.

A "battle
of the
wilderness."

735. The Germans in Full Retreat. — While British, French, and Americans were driving the Germans out of France, British and Belgians attacked them in Flanders, compelling them to give up considerable territory in Belgium. Before the middle of October the whole German army on the western front was in full retreat. Although the Germans had fought stubbornly all the way back from the Marne and were not yet overwhelmed, their *morale* was gone. They had put all their strength and hope in their great drive; and when it failed they had shot their last bolt.

German
morale
gone.

736. On Other Fronts. — The Austrians in Italy had, in June, crossed the Piave River in an offensive against the Italians, which was intended to be a part of the German drive; but they had been disastrously routed and hurled in confusion across the river. The Italians, in a counter offensive, were advancing toward the Austrian border and the demoralized Austrian army was unable to stop them. An allied army moving northward through Serbia was threatening Bulgaria. British armies in Asia, which in 1917 had captured Bagdad and Jerusalem, were penetrating the heart of the Turkish empire in the direction of Constantinople. Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey, with their resources for war exhausted and their people facing starvation, were eager for peace. Bulgaria was the first to give up, surrendering on September 30, 1918.

Bagdad
and
Jerusalem.

737. Germany Asks for Peace. — The German war lords saw their scheme of world domination crumbling. They knew that their other allies would soon follow the example of Bulgaria and desert them as rats desert a sinking ship; and that then there would be invasions of Germany not only from the west by the allied armies in France and Belgium, but from the south by the allied armies in Italy, the Balkan country, and Asia. They knew that all the reserve

Germany
open to
invasion.

man-power of Germany had already been used in the army, that materials for war were running short, and that the food supplies expected from Russia and Roumania had failed on account of the disordered condition of these countries. They saw about them the German people, pinched by hunger and mourning for their millions of dead, fearful of even worse to come with the final defeat of their armies. They heard murmurings of discontent and even threats of revolution.

Early in October the German Chancellor sent to President Wilson a note asking him to take up with the allied governments the question of an armistice — that is, a cessation of hostilities — with the view of making a treaty of peace. President Wilson had already declared the terms upon which the United States would make peace; and in his note to the President the Chancellor announced that Germany would accept them.

Germany
appeals to
President
Wilson.

738. President Wilson's "Fourteen Points." — The terms upon which President Wilson had declared that the United States would agree to peace were fourteen in number, and they came to be commonly spoken of as his "fourteen points." Among them were: No more secret treaties or understandings between nations; free navigation of the seas alike in peace and war; reduction of armaments; disposition of the captured German colonies to be made with consideration for their populations; restoration of Belgium and evacuation of all foreign territory occupied by Germany and her associates; righting of the wrong done to France in the seizure by Prussia, in 1871, of Alsace and Lorraine, and the return to Italy of all territory properly Italian; protection of the rights of small nations and subject nations; formation of a league of nations for the purpose of making secure the independence of great and

Looking to
peace in the
future.

small nations alike. President Wilson's purpose was to compel fair dealing among nations in the future and thus prevent another such catastrophe as the World War.

739. The Armistice.—President Wilson referred Germany's request for an armistice to the allied governments, who agreed, with a few modifications, to the fourteen points and turned over to the military authorities the matter of arranging the details of the armistice. The conditions as decided upon for the armistice required that Germany should evacuate all occupied territory and give up Alsace and Lorraine; disarm a large part of her army and turn the arms over to the Allies; surrender all her submarines and part of her high seas fleet. To enforce these conditions the allied armies were to occupy certain strategic portions of German territory.

Cessation of
hostilities.

The conditions of the armistice were such as to make it impossible for Germany to renew the war if she should wish to reject the final terms of peace. Germany accepted the conditions, and hostilities ceased on the day set for the armistice to begin, November 11, 1918.

Turkey had already surrendered on October 30 and Austria on November 3.

Capture of
Sedan.

740. Last Phases of the War.—During the month that negotiations for the armistice were in progress the allied advance had not slackened. The Germans had been driven practically out of France and much of Belgium had been taken from them. Only four days before the armistice went into effect the Americans had retaken the famous French city of Sedan, a few miles within the border, which is the key to one of the only two railway systems remaining to the Germans in their retreat. When hostilities ceased the Allies stood ready to cross into Germany and march on to Berlin.

741. Cost of the War in Lives and Money. — It is estimated that in the World War seven million men were killed in battle or died in service. Nearly nineteen million were wounded, many of them being disabled for life. Russia suffered the largest loss, and Germany next, though in proportion to population France lost more than either. The United States, on account of the short time that it participated in the war, suffered the smallest loss of the leading belligerents; yet the number of Americans who were killed or who died in the service was about seventy thousand, and the number of wounded about two hundred thousand.

The cost in
lives.

To the appalling death toll must be added the countless number of civilians who were killed or who died from ill treatment or disease in the areas overrun by Germany and her associates.

The combined cost to all the governments for carrying on the war was about two hundred billion dollars. The cost to Great Britain and Germany was about thirty-five billions each, and to the United States more than twenty billions. In addition each of these countries loaned money to other belligerents. The United States loaned to the Allies about eight billion dollars.

The cost
in money.

The loss to property in the war areas, where Germany and her associates ruthlessly destroyed cities and villages, factories, mines, and other industries, amounted to very many billions of dollars. The inhabitants of these regions were left in such destitute condition that, after hostilities ceased, the Congress of the United States appropriated one hundred million dollars to feed them.

The cost
in property.

742. The Peace Conference at Paris. — The world came out of the war as from a long nightmare. The carnage of battle where millions of men fought and died, the

Democracy
must
prevail.

ruined cities and wasted fields where famine and pestilence prevailed, the four years of agony such as had never been known before, could not be forgotten; but now that the war had ended with the overthrow of autocracy the world turned with hope to the future. Hereafter democracy must stand united for the rights of man.

The thing first to be done was to fix upon terms of peace. For this purpose delegates from the victorious nations met, in January, 1919, in a conference at Paris. President Wilson headed the delegation from the United States. This was the first time that a President had left the bounds of the country for more than a day or so. Since only a just peace would be lasting and since both the Allies and the Central Powers had accepted as the bases for such a peace the principles outlined by him, President Wilson deemed it his duty to attend the conference that these principles might be clearly set forth. The United States, wishing no territorial or other gains from the war, was in the best position to urge terms of peace that would do justice to all nations, great and small alike.

President
Wilson in
Paris.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

717. THE HINDENBURG LINE.

718-722. COLLAPSE OF RUSSIA. — Effect of on the war; end of the year 1917.

723. THE GREAT GERMAN DRIVE.

724-728. TURN OF THE TIDE. — Foch in command of the Allies; Chateau Thierry; Americans pouring into France; Second Marne.

729-736. ALLIES' OFFENSIVE CONTINUES. — St. Mihiel; Hindenburg Line; Argonne Forest; Germans in full retreat; on other fronts.

737-742. GERMANY ASKS FOR PEACE. — President Wilson's "fourteen points"; the armistice; last phases of the war; cost of the war; the peace conference in Paris.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

LIST OF THE PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS.

No.	President.	State.	Born.	Died.	Term of Office.	By whom elected.	Vice-President.
1	George Washington.	Virginia	1732	1799	Two terms; 1789-1797	Whole people	John Adams.
2	John Adams	Massachusetts	1735	1826	One term; 1797-1801	Federalists	Thomas Jefferson.
3	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	1743	1826	Two terms; 1801-1809	Democratic-Republicans.	Aaron Burr.
4	James Madison	Virginia	1751	1836	Two terms; 1809-1817	Democratic-Republicans.	George Clinton.
5	James Monroe	Virginia	1758	1831	Two terms; 1817-1825	Democratic-Republicans.	Elbridge Gerry.
6	John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	1767	1848	One term; 1825-1829	House of Rep.	Daniel D. Tompkins.
7	Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	1767	1845	Two terms; 1829-1837	Democrats	John C. Calhoun.
8	Martin Van Buren	New York	1782	1862	One term; 1837-1841	Democrats	John C. Calhoun.
9	William H. Harrison	Ohio	1773	1841	One month; 1841	Whigs	Martin Van Buren.
10	John Tyler	Virginia	1790	1862	8 years and 11 months; 1841-1845	Whigs	Richard M. Johnson.
11	James K. Polk	Tennessee	1795	1849	One term; 1845-1849	Democrats	John Tyler.
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	1784	1850	1 year and 4 months; 1849-1850	Whigs	George M. Dallas.
13	Millard Fillmore	New York	1800	1874	2 years and 8 months; 1850-1863	Whigs	Millard Fillmore.
14	Franklin Pierce	N. Hampshire	1804	1869	One term; 1853-1857	Democrats	William R. King.
15	James Buchanan	Pennsylvania	1791	1868	One term; 1857-1861	Democrats	J. C. Breckinridge.
16	Abraham Lincoln	Illinois	1809	1865	One term and 6 weeks; 1861-1865	Republicans	Hannibal Hamlin.
17	Andrew Johnson	Tennessee	1808	1875	8 years and 10½ months; 1865-1869	Republicans	Andrew Johnson.
18	Ulysses S. Grant.	Illinois	1822	1885	Two terms; 1869-1877	Republicans	Schuyler Colfax.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	1822	1893	One term; 1877-1881	Republicans	Henry Wilson.
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	1831	1881	Six months and 15 days	Republicans	William A. Wheeler.
21	Chester A. Arthur	New York	1830	1886	8 years, 5 mos., 15 days; 1881-1885	Republicans	Chester A. Arthur.
22	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	One term; 1885-1889	Democrats	Thomas A. Hendricks.
23	Benjamin Harrison	Indiana	1833	1901	One term; 1889-1893	Republicans	Levi P. Morton.
24	Grover Cleveland	New York	1837	1908	One term; 1893-1897	Democrats	Adlai E. Stevenson.
25	William McKinley	Ohio	1843	1901	One term and 6 months; 1897-1901	Republicans	Garret A. Hobart. ¹
26	Theodore Roosevelt.	New York	1858	...	3 yr. 6 mo., one term; 1901-1909	Republicans	Theodore Roosevelt.
27	William H. Taft	Ohio	1857	...	One term; 1909-1913	Republicans	Charles W. Fairbanks.
28	Woodrow Wilson	New Jersey	1856	...	...	Democrats	James S. Sherman.
29							Thomas R. Marshall.

¹ Died in office.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS

TO TEACHERS

I. ABOUT QUESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING THE TEXT:

1. These questions have been adapted not only to this text-book but also to the minds of grammar school pupils.

2. The form of a question is of vital importance. The dull pupil gets accustomed to the mental crutches provided in leading questions. The keen pupil may answer the teacher's blind question, but he feels the lack of mental stimulus. He will not grow under the process of such questioning.

General
notes and
suggestions
to teachers
who use
Thompson's
"History of
the United
States."

II. ABOUT THE TOPICAL ANALYSES:

The class should study each lesson by the topics which are placed at the close of the chapters. Each pupil should be held responsible for recitation by topics as well as by questions. This exercise, requiring sustained independent thought and constructive work, should follow the drill by question and answer. The latter exercise merely selects individual facts and gives an appreciation of their significance. This work needs to be followed by an "assembling" or constructive recitation by topics putting all the facts together in logical and interesting form. Either aid, topics or questions, used without the other, lacks efficiency in the teaching of history.

III. ABOUT SKETCH MAPS:

Every pupil should be taught to sketch a map of the country or locality under discussion rapidly, from memory, on paper at his desk or on the black-board. The questions give frequent chances for such work.

IV. ABOUT THE REFERENCES FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS:

These references are given to help teachers in preparing the lesson, in order that they may get more details, more knowledge of underlying causes and conditions. Professor Palmer of Harvard University used to tell young Normal School graduates that, as teachers, they must always see to it that they had a good, roomy platform of "extra materials" to stand upon while they taught the pupil who already knew what was in the text-book.

The references have been selected from a rather small number of the best standard general histories and the best known special histories, so that the books can all, in time, be owned by the school or the town library.

V. ABOUT THE REFERENCES FOR THE USE OF PUPILS:

Let the pupils feel that they are studying the *subject* rather than the *book*. Use in class other accounts — history, prose or poetry, or fiction — to supplement the text, and then encourage optional reading in spare time. This device never hurts the regular work. It often wakes up a listless boy and keeps the keen, mischievous boy busy. Have some definite system of recognition and reward for the girls and boys who can get their regular lesson well done and read other books intelligently. Give them a chance to add to the interest of regular recitations from their individual stores of information.

VI. ABOUT REVIEW WORK:

Topics and questions are not sufficient for history work. There must be drill after drill to help the pupils to keep in mind the facts that have been gathered and logically arranged, by use of questions and topics.

Every teacher should work out lively reviews which will be as attractive in form, and varied in nature, as games. He should demand perfection in such work, however, never forgetting that while the children are being entertained, he must use the time for solid, effective drill work, accepting no slipshod, loose answers, but encouraging rapid, accurate thinking.

PART I. DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

Références:

a. For use of teachers

Part i, ch. i.
The Old
World and
the New.

General: Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. i-ii.

Fiske, "Discovery of America," i, pp. 148-255; ii, pp. 1-212.

Winsor, "America," i, ch. i-ii; ii, ch. i-iii; iii, ch. i.

Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 7-8.

Special: Bourne, "Spain in America" ("American Nation," vol. iii).

Winsor, "Columbus."

Winship, "Cabot Bibliography," Introduction.

Reeves, "Finding of Wineland."

Cheyney, "European Background" ("American Nation," vol. i, ch. i-v).

Markham, "Christopher Columbus."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 16-20.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 1-2.

American History Leaflets, nos. 1, 3, 9.

Reeves, "Finding of Wineland."

Illustrative: Longfellow, "Skeleton in Armor." "Saga of King Olaf."

Irving, "Columbus."

Lowell, "Columbus."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Tennyson, "Columbus."

Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 1-4.

Optional reading: Thomas, "History of United States," §§ 3-6.

Pratt, "America's Story," book ii, pp. 1-32.

McMurry, "Pioneers on Land and Sea," ch. vii.

1. Why were Europe, Asia, and Africa known as the Old World? 2. Why did the people in the Eastern Hemisphere call the Western Hemisphere the New World? 3. What seemed to be the center of the Old World? 4. What hardy sailors pushed out from Europe towards the west before the year 1000? 5. What ideas kept other Europeans from following the Norsemen?

6. Did Europeans know much of the countries to the east? 7. Name the Italian cities which traded in the East in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. 8. What made up the cargoes? 9. What objects beside commerce led people to the East? 10. Who interfered with this trade? 11. What could be done to save it? 12. Study a map of the world and see for yourself what other ways could be found of going to the East for trade. 13. Would the people be equally ready to sail to the East by a route across the Atlantic and by one around Africa?

14. What prince undertook to push the discovery of a new route? 15. Why did he spend so much time and money upon it? 16. How far south had the Portuguese sailed by 1471?

17. What effect did Prince Henry's zeal have upon people of other countries? 18. What young man was drawn to his court from Italy? 19. State the ideas about the size and shape of the world that Columbus already held. 20. With what reception did the ideas of Columbus meet when he explained his plan of going to the East by sailing west? 21. From whom did Columbus expect to receive money and support? 22. What objections were raised even by wise men, and what mistakes had Columbus made in his calculations? 23. How did these very errors help his enterprise?

24. What aid did Portugal give Columbus, and why did he go to Spain for other aid? 25. How do you account for Ferdinand's delay in responding to the requests of Columbus? 26. On what terms did Queen Isabella finally aid Columbus? 27. Compare a caravel of the time of Columbus with the largest boat for ocean travel you have ever seen. 28. Why did Columbus need courage and conviction for his enterprise? 29. Tell what sort of crew he was able to ship. 30. Learn the exact date of the departure from Palos in Spain and of the discovery of new lands in the West.

31. What land did Columbus sight first? 32. Can we be absolutely sure of its location? 33. Describe the landing and reception of Columbus and his crew. 34. Where did Columbus believe himself to be? 35. Picture the return and welcome of Columbus when he carried his news to Spain. 36. Did he tell them of discovering a New World or of finding another way to the Old World?

37. What was Columbus expected to accomplish on his second voyage "to the Indies"? 38. Make a brief tale of events in Isabella between 1494 and 1496. 39. Why did Columbus steer so far south on his third voyage, and what was his "landfall"? 40. In what condition did Columbus find Hispaniola in 1498? 41. How did its inhabitants treat Columbus, and how did the people of Spain feel about such treatment of the Admiral? 42. Why was Spain so eager to have Columbus find a western route to India while he

Part i, ch. i.
The Old
World and
the New.

§§ 1-13.
Pp. 1-15.

Questions for
developing
the text.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS

Part i, ch. i.
The Old
World and
the New.

was in their employ? 43. What was accomplished in the fourth voyage?
44. Did Columbus ever know what he had done for the Old World?
45. Had his life been a selfish or a useful one? 46. Name at least ten occasions when he needed all his courage and spirit.

47. How did England get the first claim to the mainland of North America? 48. Why did that country neglect to follow up this discovery of the Cabots? 49. Whose name was given to the New World? 50. Did any one intend to defraud Columbus of the honor which was given to Vespucci?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part i, ch. ii.
The North
American
Indian.

General: Fiske, "America," vol. i, pp. 21-147.

Winsor, "America," vol. i, ch. iii-vi.

Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 3-5.

Special: Morgan, "Ancient Society," "Houses and House-life."

Prescott, "Conquest of Mexico." Introduction.

Farrand, "Basis of American History" ("American Nation," vol. ii).

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 24, 40, 60, 92; vol. ii, nos. 113-116.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 9.

Winship, "Reprint of Castañeda's Relation" (Bureau of Ethnology Report, no. xiv).

Hakluyt's "Principal Navigations," vol. iii.

Illustrative: French, "Colonials."

Wallace, "Land of the Pueblos."

Longfellow, "Hiawatha."

Prescott, "Conquest of Peru."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 8, 11, 33, 38, 39, 40, 41, 43.

Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 24-31, 34, 40.

Bryant, "The Indian Girl's Lament," "An Indian at the Burial-place of his Fathers."

Optional reading: Hazard and Dutton, "Indians and Pioneers," pp. 11-88.

McMurry, "Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West," ch. v and vi.

Thomas, "History of the United States," pp. 1-6.

§§ 14-23.
Pp. 16-25.

1. What name given by Columbus in America has always been kept?
2. How did the Indians whom Columbus took back to Europe look and dress? 3. Out of what materials did Indians make their clothes and ornaments? 4. Give some idea of the number of Indians in the country which is now the United States, at the time of discovery.

Questions for
developing
the text.

5. Explain how the Indians were grouped and governed. 6. Describe an Indian village, a tent, and the Iroquois Long House. 7. If you had been an Indian warrior, how would you have spent your days? Describe implements for work, your boat, your money, and your amusements. 8. How did inheritance pass through the female line?

9. What spirits, or gods, did the Indians worship? 10. What did an Indian expect from his medicine man, his totem, and his manitou? 11. Name the good traits of an Indian and the bad ones. 12. It is said that when an Indian child was killed by a white man, any white child might be killed by that bereaved Indian father. Why would he do this? 13. Was an Indian's promise worth much? 14. Describe an Indian's weapons and his manner of making war on villages.

15. What was the first idea held by the Indians concerning the white men from Europe? 16. Why did the Indians dislike the white men? 17. Why did they like to have them in their midst? 18. What did the Indians learn from white men? 19. What good effect did the Indian wars have on the American colonists?

Part-i, ch. iii
The North
American
Indian.

20. Describe the pueblos and the cliff dwellings. 21. What made the Spaniards eager to find more and more of the Indian cities in Mexico, Peru, and Central America?

References :

a. For use of teachers.

General : Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. iii.

Part i, ch. iii
Spanish
Explorations
and Settle-
ments.

Winsor, "America," vol. ii, ch. iv-ix.

Fiske, "America," vol. ii, pp. 213-293, 294-364.

Bancroft, "History of the United States," vol. i, pp. 34-68, 74-82.

Hildreth, "History of the United States," vol. i, pp. 39, 43-44, 47-49.

Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 9-10.

Special : Bourne, "Spain in America."

Prescott, "Conquest of Peru," "Conquest of Mexico."

Helps, "Spanish Conquest of America."

Winship, "Coronado's March" (Bureau of Ethnology Report, no. xiv).

Blackmar, "Spanish Colonies in the Southwest." Johns Hopkins University Studies, vol. viii, no. 4.

Sources : Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 21-24.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 3. American History Leaflets, no. 13.

Illustrative : Keats, "Sonnet to Chapman's Homer" (Cortez).

Cooper, "Mercedes of Castile."

b. For use of pupils.

In class : Tennyson, "The Revenge."

Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 5-7.

Optional reading : McMurry, "Pioneers on Land and Sea," ch. viii-x.

"Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley," ch. xii.

"Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West," ch. viii.

1. What made so much turmoil and lawlessness in the Spanish colony of Hispaniola? 2. Why did Balboa call the Pacific Ocean the South Sea? 3. What discovery resulted from Ponce de Leon's search for the Fountain of Youth? 4. How did Pineda's exploration complete the work of Ponce de Leon? 5. Did it help Spain to realize that she had not yet found either the coast or the outlying islands of Asia?

§§ 24-36.
Pp. 26-34.

6. Whose ship sailed first around the world? 7. What was its route? 8. Were the results of Magellan's enterprise worth the loss of those 182 lives? 9. How did Magellan's work complete that of Columbus?

Questions for
developing
the text.

10. Had an eastern ocean passage to India ever been found? 11. What desire of Spain led to the efforts of De Ayllon and of Gomez? 12. What were the net results of their explorations?

13. Describe the first inland exploration made by the Spaniards upon a large scale. 14. What motive urged the explorers, and how far did the

Part i, ch. iiii. Spanish Explorations and Settlements. success of Cortez inspire others? 15. How do we know about the Narvaez party? 16. What new conquest in South America led to another exploring party in what we call now the United States? 17. Who were the leaders of this party, and what were their gains and losses? 18. What men may deserve De Soto's honor of discovering the Mississippi River? 19. What white man led a party into the "Great Southwest" in 1540? Sum up his gains and losses.

20. By tracing on an outline map the routes of De Vaca, Cortez, De Soto, and Coronado, show how much of the country was explored by them and how near together their trails were. 21. Why would a boy living to-day on the South Atlantic seaboard or in a Gulf state be more interested in De Soto and De Vaca than a New England or a New York boy? 22. Would it be wise or fair to omit these stories in a history class in Vermont or Montana?

23. What class of men followed up the work of Spanish explorers in the New World? 24. What was their method of meeting the Indians and of working among them? 25. Contrast the motives and methods of the Spanish explorer and of the Spanish monk. 26. What was the extent of Spain's claim to the New World in 1559? 27. What was the extent of Florida on a Spanish map at that date?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- Part i, ch. iv. French Explorations and Settlements. *General*: Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. iv.
Winsor, "America," vol. iv, ch. i-iii.
Hildreth, "United States," vol. i, pp. 42, 44-46, 71-75, 91-92.
Bancroft, "United States" (original edition), vol. i, pp. 16-28, 29-34, 68-83.
Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 11-14.
Special: Parkman, "Pioneers of France." Winsor, "Cartier to Frontenac."
Thwaites, "France in America" ("American Nation," vol. vii).
Murphy, "Voyage of Verrazano."
De Costa, "Verrazano the Explorer." Baird, "Huguenot Emigration."
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 34-36.
Hart, "Source Book," nos. 6 and 36.
Illustrative: Whittier, "St. John."
Catherwood, "Lady of Fort St. John," "Romance of Dollard."

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: McMurry, "Pioneers on Land and Sea," ch. i.
Optional reading: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," no. 14.
Pratt, "America's Story," book ii, pp. 68-76.

§§ 37-42.
Pp. 35-40.

1. Describe the civilization of European countries at the time when Spanish explorers were searching for treasure and dominion in the New World.
2. What threatened the safe return of Spanish ships? 3. What great beliefs influenced European nations to fight against one another? 4. Which country was divided between two religious parties?
5. Why had France been backward in getting a share of the New World?
6. Who made the official beginning for France, and what part of the New World did he explore? 7. What was the attitude of Francis I towards the

Pope's Bull of 1493? 8. Why do Canadians and Frenchmen honor the name of Jacques Cartier? 9. What success did the Huguenot leaders, Ribault and Laudonnière, have in making settlements? 10. Find every place mentioned in this chapter on maps in your geography or history textbooks.

Part i, ch. iv
French
Explorations
and Settle-
ments.

11. Describe in detail the struggle between French Huguenots and Spaniards in the New World, giving motives and results. 12. What opportunities, besides that of adding to dominion, made Canada seem desirable to the French government and to individual Frenchmen? 13. Why was Champlain's name in every newspaper in the summer of 1909? 14. What could the Governor of Canada and the President of the United States say about him?

Questions for
developing
the text.

15. What area was included in New France on the maps of Frenchmen in 1620? 16. How far did French and Spanish claims to America conflict?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. v.

Part i, ch. v.
The English,
The Dutch.

Winsor, "America," vol. iii, ch. ii-iv, vi.

Doyle, "Virginia," pp. 23-26, 37-39, 43-51, 56-74, 105-108.

Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 8, 14-16.

Bancroft, "United States," vol. i, pp. 8-15, 98-100, 100-126, 127-132.

Fiske, "America," vol. ii, 2-15.

Hildreth, "United States," vol. i, pp. 34-36, 76-81, 81-87, 90.

Special: Fiske, "Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America," vol. i, ch. i-iv.

Winship, "Cabot Bibliography."

Harrisse, "Discovery of America."

Froude, "English Seamen of the Sixteenth Century."

Creighton, "Sir Walter Raleigh."

Tyler, "England in America" ("American Nation," vol. iv).

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 25-33.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 5.

Illustrative: Kingsley, "Westward Ho!"

Tennyson, "The Revenge."

Longfellow, "Sir Humphrey Gilbert."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 32, 34-36, 55-56.

Optional reading: McMurry, "Pioneers on Land and Sea," ch. ii and iii.

"Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains," ch. vii.

Hodgdon, "First Course," book i, pp. 50-56, 68-77.

1. What share had England taken in opening up the New World? §§ 43-49.
2. What was the motive of the first Englishman who repeated the feat of Magellan? Pp. 41-48.
3. What region of the New World did he claim and name for England?
4. Could England hope to hold any share of the New World without following up her discoveries and explorations with settlements.
5. What other advantages would come to England from such colonies or stations in the New World?

6. Tell in an interesting way the whole story of Gilbert's and of Raleigh's work.
7. What did Sir Richard Grenville do to help and to hinder the success of the colony?
8. What was the tragedy of the first city of Raleigh?

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part i, ch. v.
The English.
The Dutch.

9. Who was to blame for this terrible suffering and loss? 10. Was Gosnold's expedition worth while?

11. On outline maps of North America, let each pupil locate in colored pencils the grants to the London and to the Plymouth companies. 12. Did an Englishman's map of North America in 1606 look like ours of to-day? 13. Compare it with those of Spain and France made before 1620.

14. Why was the Dutch nation interested in finding a short northern passage to the East? 15. What explorer, while searching for such a passage, gave the Dutch a definite claim to land in the New World?

PART II. THE COLONIAL PERIOD. 1607-1776

VIRGINIA

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part ii, ch. vi.
The South-
ern Colonies:
Virginia.

General: Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. vi-vii; vol. ii, ch. iii.

Winsor, "America," vol. iii, pp. 127-153; vol. v, pp. 263-270.

Bancroft, "United States," vol. i, pp. 209-252; vol. ii, pp. 188-234, 246-256; vol. iii, pp. 25-29.

Hildreth, "United States," vol. i, pp. 126-135, 209-215, 335-357, 509-566; vol. ii, pp. 173-182, 208-210, 233-240, 326-329.

Doyle, "The English in America," vol. i, pp. 185-256.

Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 15, 30-32, 40, 43.

Lodge, "The English Colonies," pp. 12-40.

Special: Semple, "Geographic Conditions," pp. 19-35.

Fiske, "Old Virginia," vol. i. (Consult the Index for Virginia.)

Bruce, "Virginia," vol. i, pp. 1-188.

Neil, "Virginia Carolorum."

For money: Johnston, A. S., "Introduction to Economics," ch. xv.

Bullock, C. J., "Introduction to the Study of Economics," ch. viii.

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 44-48, 50, 59-71.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 13, 34, 35.

American History Leaflets, no. 27. MacDonald, "Select Charters," vol. i

Illustrative: Caruthers, "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe."

Mary Johnston, "To have and to hold."

Stimson, "King Noanett."

Cooke, "My Lady Pocahontas," "Stories of the Old Dominion."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 32-36, 50, 53, 60, 78-82.

Optional reading: Thomas, "History of United States," pp. 19-22, 39-42.

Hodgdon, "First Course," pp. 78-100.

1. Review the bounds of the grant of territory to the London Company of England. 2. Hunt on the map for a location which you would think suitable for a settlement of English colonists. 3. What arrangements were made between the London Company and King James of England for planting a colony in this new land?

4. Give the details of the founding of Jamestown and of the early sufferings of the colonists. 5. Describe and estimate the importance of John Smith's work for the Jamestown colony. 6. Tell the story of Pocahontas. 7. Would

you have enjoyed working for the common-store house? 3. What were the advantages and disadvantages of such a system?

9. In what condition did the first governor of Virginia find the Jamestown colonists in 1610? 10. Describe the two most important reforms made by Sir Thomas Dale as High Marshal of Virginia. 11. Why could tobacco be used as money? (The teacher might give the pupils right here a brief explanation of the characteristic and necessary qualities of any medium of exchange, whether wampum, tobacco, paper money, or gold. See References.) 12. Recount the provisions made in England by the king and the London Company for the government of Virginia from 1606 to 1619.

13. Why were homes more permanent and happy in Jamestown after 1619? 14. Why were the Jamestown settlers ready to buy the negro slaves? 15. Account for the Indian massacre in 1622. 16. Describe the daily life in Virginia at the time it became a royal colony.

17. Why did the king take away the London Company's charter? 18. Was there any revolutionary germ which the king might have feared in the colonial assembly of Virginia? 19. Give an intelligent account of the troubles in England between the Puritans and the Cavaliers. 20. Why should boys and girls in Virginia and in many of our states be interested in the Cavaliers of England? 21. Contrast the numbers of Virginia's population in 1607, 1610, 1624, and 1670.

22. Why did the Navigation Acts, which seemed better for Englishmen at home, bear heavily upon the English colonists in Virginia? 23. What conditions led to Nathaniel Bacon's Rebellion? 24. How did the people really feel toward Bacon and his war on Governor Berkeley? 25. Describe some signs of prosperity in the growing colony of Virginia at the close of the seventeenth century. 26. What religious sects would you have found there?

Part ii, ch. vi
The South-
ern Colonies:
Virginia.

Questions for
developing
the text.

MARYLAND

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- General:* Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. ix; vol. ii, ch. xii.
Winsor, "America," vol. iii, pp. 517-543; vol. v, pp. 259-269.
Bancroft, "United States" (Index).
Hildreth, "United States" (Index). Doyle, "Virginia," pp. 275-313.
Lodge, "English Colonies," pp. 93-109. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 33-35, 40-43.
Special: Browne, "George Calvert and Cecilius Calvert."
Streeter, "Maryland of Two Hundred Years Ago."
Bozman, "History of Maryland." Scharf, "History of Maryland."

THE CAROLINAS

- General:* Winsor, "America," vol. v, pp. 285-334.
Bancroft, "United States," vol. i, pp. 104-126; vol. ii, pp. 128-187; vol. iii, pp. 13-24.
Hildreth, "United States" (Index). Doyle, "Virginia," pp. 328-380.
Lodge, "The English Colonies," pp. 142-169. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 36-38.
Special: Hewatt, "South Carolina and Georgia" (in Carroll, "Historical Collection of South Carolina," vol. i).

Part ii, ch. vi
The Caro-
linas.

Ramsay, "South Carolina."
Hawks, "North Carolina," vol. ii.

Martin, "North Carolina."
Moore, "North Carolina."

GEORGIA

Georgia.

General: Winsor, "America," vol. v, pp. 357-392.
Bancroft, "United States," vol. iii, pp. 417-446.
Hildreth, "United States," vol. ii, pp. 362-369, 374-385.
Lodge, "The English Colonies," pp. 186-196. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 116-117.
Special: Jones, C. C., "Georgia," vol. i.
Harris, T. M., "Life of Oglethorpe."

Stevens, "Georgia."

ALL THE SOUTHERN COLONIES EXCEPT VIRGINIA

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 72-89.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 18, 24, 26, 27.

MacDonald, "Select Charters," vol. i.

Illustrative: Thurston, "Mistress Brent."

Goodwin, "Sir Christopher."

§§ 74-105.
Pp. 66-81.

1. Give some idea of the original, as compared with the present, bounds of Maryland. 2. What was the motive of Lord Baltimore in founding his colony? 3. Why was it called a proprietary colony? 4. Describe the land-
ing of the Maryland colonists. 5. Contrast the early years of Maryland
with those of Virginia. 6. What is the most remarkable fact about St. Marys
in Maryland? 7. What was the real cause of the dispute and hard feelings
about Kent Island?

Questions for
developing
the text.

8. What was the meaning and the effect of the Toleration Act? 9. Were
the Puritans as generous and tolerant as Lord Baltimore and his Catholic fol-
lowers had been? 10. When did toleration prevail again in Maryland?

11. Compare the industrial life of Maryland with that of Virginia in their
early colonial days. 12. Under what circumstances did Maryland become a
crown colony? 13. What three forms of colonial management have you
studied so far? 14. What form was Maryland under in 1635? in 1692? in
1775? 15. Was it ever a charter colony?

North
Carolina.

16. What colony furnished emigrant settlers for North Carolina? 17.
Were the motives of such emigrants like those of men who had emi-
grated from England to Maryland and Virginia? 18. What were the original
bounds of the Carolina grant? 19. Tell all you understand about the "Grand
Model." 20. How did there come to be two colonies in the Carolina colony?

21. Account for the disorders in North Carolina up to 1712. 22. Why
was there so much growth in spite of such political disputes? 23. What
industries developed in North Carolina that brought her into contact with
New England? 24. Who helped the people of North Carolina to defeat the
Tuscaroras? 25. What became of these defeated Indians? 26. How did
North Carolina become a crown colony?

South
Carolina.

27. Account for the settling and naming of Charleston, South Carolina.
28. What example, set by Maryland, did South Carolina follow? 29. Why
was there so much changing of governors in South Carolina from 1682 to

- 1695? | 30. Did the Huguenots make desirable settlers for South Carolina? Part ii, ch. vi
 31. Describe Charleston as the center of South Carolina life. 32. Why South
 were there so many slaves in this colony? 33. How did South Carolina Carolina.
 become a crown colony?
 34. Review the motives of colonizers and of colonists in founding the Georgia.
 Southern colonies. 35. What led to the settling of Georgia? 36. What
 were the bounds of the new land-grant? 37. Was there a selection of
 colonists for Georgia? 38. What were Oglethorpe's dealings with the Indian
 natives? 39. What religious sects would you have found represented in
 Georgia in 1750? 40. What industries were important to both Georgia and
 England? 41. Under what conditions did Georgia become a royal colony?

PLYMOUTH AND MASSACHUSETTS

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- General:* Channing, "United States," vol. i, ch. x-xiii, and xv and xviii. Part ii, ch. vii
 Winsor, "America," vol. iii, ch. vii-ix. The New
 Bancroft, "United States" (Index). Hildreth, "United States" (Index). Englan
 Palfrey, "History of New England," vol. i, pp. 51-100, 101-132, 147-174, 176- Colonies.
 232; vol. iii, pp. 331-344, 539-547, 596-599. Plymouth
 Doyle, "The Puritan Colonies," vol. i, pp. 14-81, 222; vol. ii, pp. 17, 102, 107, and Massa-
 114, 143, 188, 189, 246, 271, 290. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 48-53. chusetts.
Special: Ellis, G. E., "The Puritan Age and Rule."
 Campbell, Douglas, "The Puritan in Holland, England, and America."
 Green, J. R., "History of the English People," vol. ii.
 Barry, "Massachusetts."
 Brown, J., "The Pilgrim Fathers of New England."
 Fiske, "Beginnings of New England."
 Adams, C. F., "Three Episodes of Massachusetts History."
 "Life and Letters of John Winthrop."
 Weedon, W. B., "Economic and Social History of New England."

CONNECTICUT AND NEW HAVEN

- General:* Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. xiv, pp. 398-413. Connecticut
 Winsor, "America," vol. iii (Index). and New
 Bancroft, "United States" (Index). Hildreth, "United States" (Index). Haven.
 Palfrey, "New England," vol. i, pp. 528-534.
 "Compendious History," vols. i and ii (Index).
 Doyle, "The Puritan Colonies," vol. i, pp. 149-178, 223, 286-287; vol. ii, pp.
 116-125. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 57-59.
Special: Andrews, Charles M., "The River Towns of Connecticut," in Johns
 Hopkins Studies, vol. vii, nos. 7-9.
 Trumbull, "History of Connecticut." Walker, G. L., "Thomas Hooker."
 Atwater, "History of New Haven Colony."
 New Haven Colony Historical Society Papers.
 Colonial Records of Massachusetts and of Connecticut.

RHODE ISLAND

- General:* Channing, "History of the United States," vol. i, ch. xiv, pp. 382-398.
 Winsor, "America," vol. iii (Index).

Part ii, ch. vii.
Rhode
Island.

Bancroft, "United States" (Index). Hildreth, "United States" (Index).
Doyle, "The Puritan Colonies," vol. i, pp. 113-140, 181-190, 236-246, 267-273, 308-319; vol. ii, pp. 127-130.
Fiske, "Beginnings of New England." Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 54 and 60.
Special: Greene, G. W., "Short History of Rhode Island."
Arnold, "Rhode Island," vol. i. Dexter, H. M., "As to Roger Williams."
Narragansett Club Publications. Adams, C. F., "Three Episodes," vol. i.
Adams, Brooks, "Emancipation of Massachusetts." Rhode Island Tracts.

THE NORTHERN SETTLEMENTS (NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE)

New Hamp-
shire and
Maine.

General: Palfrey, "New England," vol. i, pp. 516-527.
"Compendious History," vol. i, pp. 214-224.
Bancroft, "United States" (Index).
Hildreth, "United States," vol. i, pp. 200-201, 265, 271. Fisher, "New England."
Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 63-81. Doyle, "Puritan Colonies," vol. i, pp. 201-219.
Special: Belknap, "New Hampshire." Williamson, "Maine."
Willis, "History of Portland." Folsom, "History of Saco and Biddeford."

ALL THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES AFTER THEIR FOUNDING TO 1700

New Eng-
land to 1700.

General: Channing, "United States," vol. ii.
Doyle, "Puritan Colonies," vol. i, pp. 220-319; vol. ii, pp. 98-114, 153-228, 298-311.
Palfrey, "New England," vols. ii and iii.
Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 74-81.
Bancroft, "United States" (Index for New England Confederation, Quakers, Andros, Witchcraft).

d. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 45, 46, 61, 62, 68.

Whittier, "The Witch's Daughter," "Skipper Ireson's Ride."

Optional reading: Thomas, "History of the United States," pp. 23-36, 62-66, 72-77.
Pratt, "America's Story," book iii, 113-157.

1. Review the grant to the Plymouth Company in 1606. 2. What had the Company done with this territory before 1620? 3. Define Non-conformists, Separatists, Puritans, and Pilgrims.

Plymouth.

4. Why did the Pilgrims leave England? Holland? 5. Why did they come to America? 6. From whom did the Pilgrims procure the land and money necessary for making a settlement? 7. Tell all you can of the voyage of the *Mayflower*. 8. What was the object of the "Mayflower Compact"? 9. Compare the hard times in Jamestown's early history with those at Plymouth. 10. Contrast the attitude of the colonists in facing difficulties and debts. 11. How is the friendliness of neighboring Indians accounted for? 12. What was used as a medium of exchange in the Indian trade? 13. Was wampum as good money as tobacco? 14. Summarize the growth of Plymouth colony from 1620 to 1643. 15. Before 1691, was Plymouth a proprietary, a charter, or a royal colony?

§§ 106-142.
Pp. 82-105.

Questions for
developing
the text.

16. What was the Council of New England? 17. To whom did it grant land in 1628? 18. Describe the grant and the settlement made upon it by John Endicott's colonists. 19. What was the Massachusetts Bay Company? 20. Why did they ask the king of England for a charter? 21. Describe the settlement of Boston. Part ii, ch. vii. The New England Colonies:
22. What excuse could the Puritans of the Massachusetts Bay colony give for their intolerance? 23. Contrast the attitude on religious questions of Maryland and of Massachusetts. 24. Name some of the laws and penalties in Massachusetts. 25. Why did the Massachusetts Bay Company make the union of church and state so close? 26. What two leading spirits in the colony objected to this union? 27. Recount some of the "liberal views" of Roger Williams and his punishment for advocating them. 28. What was the "crime" of Anne Hutchinson? Massachu-
setts.
29. What were the early provisions for education in the Massachusetts colony? 30. What did Massachusetts have to do with the slave trade in 1636? 31. What was the population of Massachusetts in 1640? its trade? its general condition?
32. How did King James dispose of northern New England? 33. Give the history of the first four New Hampshire towns to 1641. 34. When was New Hampshire a proprietary colony? a charter colony? a royal colony? New Hampshire.
35. How did the Dutch Fort of Good Hope lead to the English colony of Connecticut? 36. What motives animated individuals who settled Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford? 37. How did they organize their government? 38. Tell the story of the Pequot War. 39. Give the early history of New Haven. 40. What right did these English colonists have to form the colony of Connecticut and of New Haven? 41. When did the English king first recognize their existence officially? Connecticut.
42. How did Roger Williams become the founder of Rhode Island? Rhode Island.
43. What was the government of his settlement at Providence? 44. Why was it unique? 45. Why did the Massachusetts Bay colony furnish the colonists for Portsmouth and Newport as well as for Providence? 46. What name was given to the Rhode Island colony in its original charter?
47. Why was the Rhode Island colony left out of the New England Union? 48. What was the object of the New England Confederation, and what were the provisions for government under it?
49. What was the difference between a New England town and a New England village? 50. Contrast the New England towns with Southern plantations. How do you account for the different kind of settlement? 51. Give an interesting account of the work of Rev. John Eliot. 52. Why did Massachusetts coin pine-tree shillings? (Teachers should discuss this broadly, bringing the class to see that wampum and fur and tobacco were not as convenient forms of money as these shillings were.)
53. Why did the Quakers have so much suffering in Massachusetts? 54. Describe the Whalley-Goffe "chase" through New England, stating both its immediate and its far-reaching results to all concerned.

Part ii, ch. vii.
The New
England
Colonies.

55. Describe the charters granted by Charles II in 1662 and 1663.
56. Why did Rhode Island need another charter? (See § 132. Was a charter from England necessarily a royal charter?) 57. Recount each step taken by Massachusetts which put her charter in danger, and each circumstance which saved the colony from losing that precious document until 1684.

58. What instances have you found of Indians being true to their promises, as stated on page 22, § 21? 59. What was the cause and the importance of King Philip's War?

60. Why and when did Massachusetts become a royal colony? 61. What was the commission intrusted to Sir Edmund Andros by King James II? 62. Describe the new charter of Massachusetts.

63. Summarize the persecutions for religious and political reasons in Massachusetts from 1630 to 1692. 64. In how many of these did Massachusetts follow customs or beliefs which were common in England?

NEW NETHERLAND AND NEW YORK

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part ii,
ch. viii.
The Middle
Colonies:

General: Channing, "United States," vol. i, ch. xvi-xvii; vol. ii, ch. ii, iv, v, xi.
Winsor, "America," vol. iii, pp. 385-411; vol. iv, pp. 395-409; vol. v, pp. 189-207.

New York.

Bancroft, "United States," Index of vols. ii and iii.
Hildreth, "United States," Index of vols. i and ii.
Lodge, "The English Colonies," pp. 285-295, 295-311.
Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 83-87.

Special: Semple, "Geographical Conditions."

Fiske, "Dutch and Quaker Colonies."
Broadhead, "History of New York," vols. i-iii.
Smith, "New York," vol. i, pp. 50-282, 413-506.

THE JERSEYS

The Jerseys.

General: Bancroft, "United States," Index of vols. ii and iii.

Hildreth, "United States," Index of vol. ii.
Lodge, "The English Colonies," pp. 263-272.
Thwaites, "Colonies," § 88.

Special: Whitehead, in Winsor, "America," vol. iii, pp. 420-449.

Fernow, in Winsor, "America," vol. v, pp. 217-222.
Fiske: "The Dutch and Quaker Colonies."

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE

Pennsylvania
and Dela-
ware.

General: Winsor, "America," vol. iv, ch. ix.

Bancroft, "United States," vol. ii, pp. 326-404; vol. iii, pp. 35-46.
Hildreth, "United States," vol. ii, pp. 62-75, 171-186, 205-207.
Lodge, "English Colonies," pp. 211-226. Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 87, 89.

Special: Buck, W. J., "The Indian Walk."

For Quakers, see references under New England.
Stone, F. D., in Winsor, "America," vol. iii, pp. 469-495.
Fernow, in Winsor, "America," vol. v, pp. 208-217.

ALL THE MIDDLE COLONIES

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 58, 150-172.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 16, 18, 22, 23, 25, 26, 32.

New Jersey Historical Society Collection.

Hazard, "Pennsylvania Archives."

New York Historical Society Collection.

Illustrative: Stedman, "Peter Stuyvesant's New Year's Call."

Irving, "Knickerbocker's History of New York."

Dix, "The Making of Christopher Ferringham."

Part ii,
ch. viii.
The Middle
Colonies.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Whittier, "The Pennsylvanian Pilgrim."

Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 47, 49, 54, 59, 65, 67, 70, 76.

Optional reading: Pratt, "America's Story," book iii, pp. 86-112, 158-166.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 22-23, 45-57.

1. Whose explorations secured a claim to the New World for the Dutch? §§ 143-166.
2. Give dates and locations of early Dutch trading posts. 3. What were the object, the powers, and the achievements of the Dutch West India Company? Pp. 107-119.
4. Study maps of the regions claimed by the Dutch in the New World and see if any strategic points were left uncovered by their forts.
5. What was Peter Minuit's work for New Netherland? 6. Why did the West India Company desire farmers as well as traders to settle on their land, and what inducements did they offer? 7. Why did New Netherland grow so slowly? 8. What were the troubles of "Silver Leg," who ruled with an "iron hand" in New Netherland? Questions for developing the text.
9. Considering both Dutch and English colonial policies and conditions, state why New Netherland passed into the hands of the English. 10. When was New York given its first royal governor? 11. Give proof that New York was not a submissive royal colony (§§ 151 and 153). 12. Describe troubles in New York with slaves in the early eighteenth century. New York.
13. When, why, and where did the Swedes begin to settle in America? 14. Describe the absorption of New Sweden by New Netherland. 15. When did Delaware become a part of an English colony? 16. What kind of colony did it become in 1703? Delaware.
17. How did New Jersey get its name? 18. What was its form of government after it fell into the hands of Carteret and of Berkeley? 19. Account for the name "the Jerseys." 20. When and where did Quakers dominate in New Jersey? 21. Under what conditions did New Jersey cease to be a proprietary colony? New Jersey.
22. What were the beliefs of the Quakers? 23. Why did their beliefs interfere with the government policies of other Englishmen? 24. Why did William Penn found Pennsylvania? 25. Why did he ask for Delaware also? Pennsylvania.
26. What colony's territory was infringed upon by the Pennsylvania grants? 27. How was the disputed claim finally settled?

Part ii,
ch. viii.
The Middle
Colonies.

28. What inducements did Penn offer to settlers, and what treatment did he give the Indians? 29. How did settlers and Indians treat him? 30. Describe Philadelphia in 1685. 31. What were quitrents, and in how many colonies have you found trouble over them? 32. Why did English colonists in America dislike the proprietary form of government?

33. Describe and account for the rapid growth of Pennsylvania. 34. What were the three largest colonies in 1775?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part ii, ch. ix.
The French
in America.

General: Channing, "United States," vol. i, ch. iv, 100-110; vol. ii, ch. v and xviii. Winsor, "America," vol. iv, ch. iii-vii; vol. v, ch. i, ii, vii, viii. Bancroft, "United States" (Index). Hildreth, "United States" (Index). Lodge, "English Colonies" (Index). Thwaites, "Colonies," §§ 108-114, 127. *Special*: Parkman, "Pioneers of France," "Jesuits in North America," "Half Century of Conflict." Fiske, "New France and New England." Winsor, "Cartier to Frontenac." Sedgwick, "Samuel de Champlain." Thwaites, "Father Marquette." *Sources*: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. i, nos. 39-43; vol. ii, nos. 109-121. Hart, "Source Book," nos. 37 and 38. *Illustrative*: Catherwood, "Lady of Fort St. John," "Story of Tonty," "Romance of Dollard." Greene, "Young Pioneers," "La Salle."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," no. 42. Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 37 and 38. Whittier, "St. John." Longfellow, "The Ballad of the French Fleet." *Optional reading*: Thomas, "United States," pp. 61, 66-70, 85-87. Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 11-65. McMurtry, "Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley," pp. 2-69.

§§ 167-176.
Pp. 120-127.

1. What had the French done to explore and settle American lands before 1609? (See §§ 37-42.) 2. How did Champlain gain Indian allies? 3. What Indian enemies did he make? 4. What constitutes Champlain's claim to being a great explorer? 5. Follow his journeyings on a large detailed map, which you can find in an atlas or a geography.

Questions for
developing
the text.

6. Give a sympathetic, interesting account of the motives and methods of the Jesuit missionaries who came to New France. 7. Compare and contrast their work with that of Rev. John Eliot in Massachusetts and of the Spanish monks in Florida. 8. What missions had been established by 1672? 9. What were the motives and methods of the French fur traders? 10. What has entitled Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle to their fame and to the gratitude, not only of French Canadians, but of all Americans? (General answer.) 11. Give routes and details of each exploration. 12. What French settlements were attempted in the Southwest? 13. How did La Salle's work for France make territorial disputes with the Spanish and English governments inevitable?

14. Contrast the character of French and of English settlements in North America. 15. Account for the first three colonial wars between the French and the English in America; and give the details of each war, *i.e.* date, name, chief points of attack, and main results. 16. Make a sketch map to illustrate your answer to question 15. (Teachers should strive to make classes see that these three wars and the French and Indian War which follows are all parts of one big struggle of France and England for dominion in America and for dominant power in Europe.)

Partii, ch. ix.
The French
in America.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, "United States," vol. ii, ch. xix.

Winsor, "America," vol. v, ch. viii.

Bancroft, "United States" (Index). Hildreth, "United States" (Index).

Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 12-20. Lodge, "English Colonies" (Index).

Special: Parkman, "Half Century of Conflict," "Frontenac," "Conspiracy of Pontiac."

Winsor, "Cartier to Frontenac." Fiske, "New France and New England."

Perkins, "France under Louis XV," vol. ii, ch. xii-xv.

Hinsdale, "Old Northwest."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 122-129.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 39 and 40.

American History Leaflets, nos. 5, 17. Old South Leaflets, no. 9.

Illustrative: Parker, "Seats of the Mighty," "Trail of the Sword."

Catherwood, "Lazarre."

Kirby, William, "The Golden Dog."

Craddock, C. E., "Old Fort Loudon."

Cooper, J. F., "Last of the Mohicans," "The Pathfinder."

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 32, 42, 44.

Part ii, ch. x.
The French
and Indian
War.

b. For use of pupils.

Optional reading: Thomas, "History of United States," pp. 89-102.

Pratt, "America's Story," book iv, pp. 29-62.

Hawthorne, "Grandfather's Chair," part ii, ch. x.

1. What European countries had conflicting claims in the Ohio Valley? §§ 177-186.
2. Would these have brought about a war if there had been no other cause or source of unfriendly feelings? Pp. 128-134.
3. By studying your maps, find another large valley which would be controlled in time by the nation which secured the Ohio.
4. Which of the rival nations got the first start toward effective occupation of the disputed valley?

5. Through whom did the British government act in warning the French government of this conflict of claims? Questions for developing the text.
6. Why was Major George Washington chosen for the task?
7. What was the French answer?
8. How did Virginia defend her disputed territory?
9. Why did Washington surrender to the French at Fort Necessity?
10. What were the terms?

11. How did Great Britain stand in the dispute after July 4, 1754?
12. Why had France won thus far?
13. Could the English colonies afford

Part ii, ch. x.
The French
and Indian
War.

to send large forces to defend the Ohio Valley? 14. Were all the English colonies equally interested in the matter? 15. How did Benjamin Franklin try to create a common interest and responsibility in all the colonies in this big land quarrel? 16. How did the British crown support his efforts? How did the colonies?

17. When did Great Britain decide to take up the fighting in America over the disputed territory? 18. Who was placed in command of the British forces, and what was his plan of action? 19. Give the chances for and against his success. 20. What allies gave the French generals better ideas of how to fight in America? 21. How did Washington serve his colony on the day of Braddock's defeat?

22. Why was Great Britain, in 1756, more ready and yet less able to push the war in America than she had been in 1754? 23. State briefly the results of the campaigns of 1756 and 1757. 24. Which side was ahead in America in 1757, and to what leader was its success largely due? 25. When did Great Britain's success begin? 26. Name and locate each victory of the British and weigh the importance of each.

27. What was the chief stronghold of the French in America? 28. Why was it hard for the British forces to seize or destroy it? 29. By whose bravery, energy, and wits was it taken? 30. Give the details of the ascent, its dangers and difficulties. 31. Describe the Plains of Abraham and the battle. 32. What were the immediate results and the ultimate results?

33. State the significance of the fall of Canada. 34. Why did Great Britain keep on fighting France in Europe? 35. What other European country had become involved in this Seven Years' War, as it was called in Europe? 36. What was done with the disputed territory in America when France and Great Britain made their treaty in 1763? 37. What land did France own in North America at the close of the war? What did Great Britain own? What did Spain own?

38. What did the Indians gain or lose by this war? 39. Why was it hard for them to accept the verdict of war and the terms of peace? 40. In whom did they find a war leader, and what was the result of his conspiracy? 41. Had the series of Franco-English wars, which had cost the English colonists so much, been of any advantage to them?

References:

a. For use of teacher.

Part ii, ch. xi.
Life in the
Colonies:
The West.

General: Channing, "United States," vol. i, ch. xix; vol. ii, ch. xiii, xiv-xvii.
Winsor, "America," vol. v. Hildreth, "United States."
Bancroft, "United States." Lodge, ch. ii, iv, vi, viii, x, xiii, xv, xvii, xxii.
Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 2-10.

Special: Andrews, C. M. ("American Nation," vol. v), "Colonial Self-government."

Adams, C. F., "Three Episodes," vol. ii, ch. v-xiv.

Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic," ch. i-iv.

Earle, A. M., "Child Life in Colonial Days," "Two Centuries of Costume in America."

Lowell, J. R., "Among my Books," "New England of Two Centuries Ago," Part ii, ch. xi.
1st series, pp. 228-290. Life in the

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 23, 24, 45-51, 54-57, 62-65, 69-73, Colonies:
75-79, 80-108. Hart, "Source Book," nos. 28-35, 41-47, 48-50. The West.

Illustrative: Bynner, "Penelope's Suitors," "Agnes Surriage."

Cooper, "Satanstoe," "Waterwitch," "Red Rover," "Leatherstocking Tales."

French, "The Colonials." Johnston, "Audrey."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Stone and Fickett, "Everyday Life in the Colonies."

Hart and Hazard, "Colonial Children," nos. 62, 67, 68, 69, 70-75, 78.

Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19,

20, 33, 35, 36.

Optional reading: Thomas, "History of United States," pp. 70-72, 78-84.

Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 125-170.

McMurry, "Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley," pp. 69-75.

1. Name all the English colonies in North America in 1750. 2. What nationalities were represented in each? 3. What three classes or kinds of colonies were there? 4. Name those which belonged to each class in 1750. §§ 187-197.
Pp. 135-143.
5. What general provisions did all of them have for government?

6. How far was the Established Church of England adopted in the colonies? 7. What religious sects and faiths were represented in each of the colonies? 8. Describe white and black slavery in the various colonies. Questions for
developing
the text.
9. How would you have detected the social classes in the colonies?

10. Why were there so many more cities or towns in the northern and middle colonies than in the South? 11. Contrast entertainments in Virginia and Massachusetts. 12. Describe the New England Sabbath. 13. What modified the English customs in the middle colonies? 14. What books and papers would you have found in a colonial bookstore? 15. Picture the travel and transportation in the various parts of this country in 1750.
16. Name means of communication, travel, and transportation familiar in all parts of the United States to-day which were absolutely unknown in the thirteen English colonies in 1750.

17. What was the significance of the English king's Proclamation of 1763?
18. What counteracting inducements were there to English colonial pioneers?
19. Locate Watanga River and give the history of the Watanga Association.
20. Give an interesting account of the work of Boone and his followers in opening up Kentucky for settlement.

PART III. THE REVOLUTION. 1761-1783

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, vol. ii, ch. viii-x, xvii.

Bancroft, "United States" (Index).

Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 22-26.

Special: Morse, "Life of Benjamin Franklin," American Statesmen Series.

Tyler, M. C., "Life of Patrick Henry," American Statesmen Series.

Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. i.

Hildreth, "United States" (Index).

Lecky, "England," ch. xii.

Part iii,

ch. xii.

The Injustice

of the Royal

Government.

Part iii,
ch. xii.
The Injustice
of the Royal
Government.

Tudor, "Life of James Otis." Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic," ch. v.
Andrews, C. M. ("American Nation," vol. v), "Colonial Self-Government."
Howard, G. E. ("American Nation," vol. viii), "Preliminaries of the Revolution."
Johnston, A. S., "Introduction to Economics," ch. xix, "On Regulation of
Foreign Trade."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 45-53, 54-79, 130-133, 138-144.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 51, 52. American History Leaflets, nos. 19, 21.

MacDonald, "Select Charters." Johnston, "American Orations."

Illustrative: French, "Colonials." Moore, "Songs and Ballads of the Revolution."

Thackeray, "The Virginians." Cooke, "Stories of the Old Dominion."

d. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides of the Revolution," nos. 45, 46, 47.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States History," pp. 107-115.

Pratt, "America's Story," book v, pp. 1-90.

Baldwin, "Four Great Americans," "Franklin," pp. 71-122.

§§ 198-213.
Pp. 144-153.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. How much positive aid had the British government given to its colonies in America from 1600 to 1763? 2. What indirect aid did these colonies receive from the British government? 3. Did the fear of British arms by European nations make these colonies more secure from Dutch, Spanish, or French attack in America?

4. When did Great Britain begin to control the export and import trade of her colonies? (The teacher should read some of the Navigation Acts to the class.) 5. Were any advantages secured to colonial agriculture and commerce by these navigation laws? 6. How did Great Britain's legal provisions affect colonial manufactures? 7. Was Great Britain more selfish than other nations in her treatment of the colonies? 8. What did public opinion have to do with smuggling in those days? 9. What is the attitude of society toward smugglers to-day?

10. How did the king's choice of governors affect the royal colonies? 11. Were the British colonists in America loyal to Great Britain? loyal to the king? Were they obedient? Were they proud of Great Britain and of their own blood?

12. Contrast an admiralty court with a regular court. 13. Define writ of assistance, and tell why an Englishman would object to one. 14. What colonist openly led the opposition to such writs? 15. What acts of the king aroused Virginia, South Carolina, and New York to dissatisfaction and alarm for their welfare? 16. On what terms or conditions do most of our judges hold their office to-day? 17. Why did the Parson's Cause have vital interest for every colonist in Virginia and in all the colonies?

18. Why did Great Britain seek to make her American colonies "self-supporting"? 19. What was the alternative to the colonists taxing themselves? 20. On just what grounds did the colonists object to being taxed by Parliament? 21. Why would the strict enforcement of the new Sugar Act bear heavily now (1764) upon the colonies? 22. What was the difference between

the provisions about sugar trade in the old Navigation Act and in the new Sugar Act of 1764?

23. Describe the Stamp Act (a) from the British Parliament's point of view; (b) from any colonist's point of view. 24. Define Sons of Liberty, non-importation agreement, and Virginia Resolutions.

25. Give the story of Virginia's ringing the alarm bell, and of South Carolina's leading action in the American Congress. 26. What demands did the Stamp Act Congress formulate? 27. Why did the Stamp Act fail? 28. What members of Parliament championed the American cause? 29. Had Parliament been defeated or only temporarily checked in its plans?

Part iii,
ch. xii.
The Injustice
of the Royal
Government.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, "United States, 1765-1865," ch. ii.

Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. i.

Bancroft, "United States."

Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 27-31.

Lodge, "English Colonies," ch. xxiii.

Hildreth, "United States."

Lecky, "England," ch. xii.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 27-31.

Part iii,
ch. xiii.
Oppressive
Legislation
Continues.

Special: Morse, "Life of Thomas Jefferson."

Morse, "Life of Benjamin Franklin," American Statesmen Series.

"Life of John Adams," American Statesmen Series.

Hosmer, "Life of Samuel Adams," American Statesmen Series.

Tyler, "Life of Patrick Henry," American Statesmen Series.

Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic," ch. vi-viii.

Winsor, "Memorial History of Boston."

Lossing, "Field Book of the Revolution," vol. ii.

Howard, "Preliminaries of the Revolution" (American Nation Series, vol. viii).

Weeden, "Economic and Social History of New England."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 145-153. Adams, John, "Diary."

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 22-54.

Hutchinson, "Massachusetts."

Illustrative: French, "Colonials."

Churchill, "Richard Carvel."

Ford, "Janice Meredith."

Cooke, "Virginia," "Dr. Vandyke."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 48, 49, 50, 51, 56, 57.

Franklin's "Autobiography."

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States History," pp. 115-127.

Davidson, "United States History," pp. 163-170.

Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 132-144, 145-149.

1. State definitely the three Townshend Acts of 1767. 2. For what reasons, and in what manner, did the Massachusetts Assembly protest against these Acts? 3. What was the king's response? 4. Did Massachusetts stand alone in her attitude and action? 5. How did Parliament respond to this colonial action?

§§ 214-223.
Pp. 154-160.

6. Give the details of the story of bloodshed in New York and Boston in 1770. 7. What led to the battle of Alamance, and what resulted? 8. Do the colonists seem to be united in feeling and ideas in this decade from 1760

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part iii.
ch. xiii.
Oppressive
Legislation
Continues.

to 1770? Prove your decision by definite illustrations. 9. Why did Boston have her "tea party" in 1773? 10. Who followed her example? 11. State definitely the contents of the Five Intolerable Acts. 12. Show how the colonies proved good neighbors and sisters to Massachusetts. 13. How had the colonists known of intercolonial affairs and conditions? 14. What was the object of the First Continental Congress? of committees of safety? of minute men? 15. What was England's answer to preparations for war in America?

References:

a. For use of teachers

Part iii,
ch. xiv.
The First
Year of the
Revolution-
ary War,
1775.

General: Channing, "United States, 1765-1865."

Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. ii; vol. vii, ch. i. Lecky, "England," ch. xii.

Hildreth, "United States." Bancroft, "United States," vols. vii and viii.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 32-33, 35-37. Lodge, "English Colonies."

Special: Barry, "History of Massachusetts," vol. iii.

Greene, E. B. ("American Nation," vol. vi), "Colonial Commonwealths."

Van Tyne, C. H. ("American Nation," vol. ix), "The American Revolution."

Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic."

Stedman, "History of the American War."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 155, 156, 159, 161, 166, 184, 185, 191, 192.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 54, 55, 57. Force, "American Archives," vol. ii.

Illustrative: See references of previous chapter.

Thompson, "Green Mountain Boys." Hawthorne, "Septimius Felton."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 52, 58, 59, 68, 77.

Bryant, "The Green Mountain Boys." Longfellow, "Paul Revere's Ride."

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 127-133.

Pratt, "America's Story," book v.

Fiske, "The War for Independence."

Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 150-152.

§§ 224-233.
Pp. 161-168.

1. What double purpose did General Gage have in sending soldiers to Lexington and Concord? 2. How was the alarm spread? 3. What event does Lexington celebrate every year on April 19? 4. Describe the battle at Concord, and its effect on America. 5. What is the claim of Ethan Allen to fame?

Questions for
developing
the text.

6. What ultimatum was formulated by the Second Continental Congress? 7. What steps did it take to secure public safety while awaiting Great Britain's response? 8. What anniversary do North Carolinians celebrate on May 20? 9. Contrast the British and the Continental soldiers before Boston in June, 1775. 10. Give all the details you can of the battle of Bunker Hill. 11. Why is it often called a "moral victory" for the Americans? 12. How did Georgia help to supply the Continental army stationed about Boston?

13. What choice did the Continental Congress give Canada? 14. Account for the American retreat from Canada. 15. Had General Richard Mont-

gomery and his men done good work? 16. What was Governor Dunmore's last official act in Virginia? 17. Summarize conditions of royal government in the thirteen colonies in December, 1775. 18. Who were the Whigs and the Tories, and what were the party principles of each?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, "United States, 1765-1865."

Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. iii, iv, vii; vol. vii, ch. i.

Bancroft, "United States."

Hildreth, "United States."

Lodge, "English Colonies."

Fiske, "American Revolution."

Lecky, "England," ch. xiv.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 38-40.

Special: Ramsay, "Revolution in South Carolina."

Moultrie, "Memoirs."

Frothingham, "Life of Warren."

Sparks, "Correspondence of the Revolution."

Van Tyne, "The American Revolution" (American Nation Series, vol. ix).

McLaughlin, "The Confederation and the Constitution" (American Nation Series, vol. x).

Lodge, "Alexander Hamilton."

Morse, "Thomas Jefferson."

Gay, "James Madison."

Morse, "John Adams."

Hosmer, "Samuel Adams."

Tyler, "Patrick Henry."

Lodge, "George Washington."

Morse, "Benjamin Franklin."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 157, 160, 167, 170, 171, 178, 187-189, 193-195.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 56, 58.

American History Leaflets, nos. 11, 17. Old South Leaflets, no. 3.

Force, "American Archives," 4th and 5th series. Paine, Thomas, "Common Sense."

Illustrative: Ford, "Janice Meredith."

Churchill, "Richard Carvel."

Coffin, "Daughters of the Revolution."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 53, 78, 79, 80, 81.

Declaration of Independence.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 133-141.

Pratt, "America's Story," book v.

Baldwin, "Story of Benjamin Franklin" in "Four Great Americans."

1. How did the first American flag show the loyalty of the colonists for Great Britain? 2. Was it easy to decide whether to be a patriot or a loyalist? 3. What was the fate of the loyal Scotch Highlanders at Moore's Creek? 4. Describe the British evacuation of Boston in March, and their repulse at Fort Moultrie in June. 5. When an attack upon the South along the coast failed, how did the British attempt to attack the colonies in the rear?

6. How did South Carolina and Virginia reorganize their colonial government? 7. Trace the growing sentiment in favor of independence. 8. When was independence resolved upon by the united colonies? 9. When was it declared? 10. Who worded the Declaration of Independence? 11. What did each colony become upon the strength of that Declaration?

Part iii.
ch. xiv.
The First
Year of the
Revolution-
ary War,
1775.

Part iii,
ch. xv.
Second Year
of the Revo-
lutionary
War, 1776.

§§ 234-248.
Pp. 169-177.

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part iii,
ch. xv.
Second Year
of the Revolu-
tionary
War, 1776.

12. Account for Washington's retreat after the battle of Long Island?
13. Was Nathan Hale a hero? 14. What were the reasons for short enlistments? 15. What were the disadvantages of them? 16. Why did Washington evacuate New York? 17. Why did he retreat across New Jersey and across the Delaware River? 18. What do you think of Charles Lee's conduct? 19. What soldiers were fighting for Great Britain who were not her subjects?

20. Sum up the first two years' history of the war. What were the gains and the losses of the Continental army up to December, 1776?

21. What danger threatened the Continental Congress? the Continental army? 22. Describe the "surprise party" given to the Hessians by General Washington. 23. What welcome Christmas present did the Continental army receive? 24. What financial troubles added to Washington's problems? 25. How was Robert Morris's patriotism shown?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part iii,
ch. xvi.
Third Year of
the Revolu-
tionary War,
1777.

General: Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. iv, v, vii; vol. vii, ch. i.

See references for ch. xv.

Special: See references for ch. xv.

Hale, E. E., "Franklin in France."

Fonblanque, "Burgoyne."

Lossing, "Life of Schuyler."

Lowell, E. J., "Hessians."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 158, 162-164, 172, 179, 181, 196-197.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 59, 61, 62.

Vermont Historical Society Collection.

Illustrative: See previous references.

Barr, A. E., "Bow of Orange Ribbon."

Hart, "Formation," §§ 40-41.

Parton, "Life of Franklin."

Lee, "Life of Arthur Lee."

Stone, W. L., "Campaign of Burgoyne."

Graham, "Life of Daniel Morgan."

Stark, "Memoirs of Stark."

Riedesel, "Letters and Memoirs."

Hawthorne, "Edward Randolph's Portrait."

Thackeray, "Virginians."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 60, 61, 69, 76, 82, 83, 84.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 141-145.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 187-198. Fiske, "The War for Independence."

Drake, S. A., "Burgoyne's Invasion of 1777."

§§ 249-261.
Pp. 178-184.

1. Tell how Washington showed clever generalship early in 1777. 2. What was the reward of success for the Continental army in New Jersey? 3. Compare General Washington and his policy of "harass but not fight" during the winter and spring of 1777, with the Roman general Fabius before the battle of Cannæ. 4. Was such a "Fabian policy" liable to be misunderstood?

Questions for
developing
the text.

5. Where did we get our "Stars and Stripes" of to-day? 6. Describe the British plan of campaign for the summer of 1777. 7. Who made up Burgoyne's army? 8. Recount Burgoyne's route, perils, and defeat. 9. How many times have you heard of Benedict Arnold in this war? What has been his part, and how has he enacted it? 10. What were the far-reaching results of Burgoyne's surrender?

11. Name and describe the foreigners who volunteered aid to our Conti-

mental army. 12. What was the success of the other half of the British campaign for 1777? 13. Was Washington to blame for the loss of Philadelphia? 14. What memory of recent defeat did the American army have to take into winter quarters at Valley Forge? 15. What other troubles did they have there? *Conway Cabal*

Part iii,
ch. xvi.
Third Year of
the Revolution-
ary War,
1777.

16. What special anxieties did General Washington endure? 17. Are lack of confidence and ingratitude harder to endure than pain and hunger? 18. What were the "weapons" used by the Conway Cabal? 19. What was done during this year to form a federal government? *yes*

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: See references for ch. xv.

Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. v, vi, vii; vol. vii, ch. i.

Mahon, "England."

Special: Dawson, "Battles."

Greene, "Nathanael Greene," vol. iii, ch. ii.

Greene, "Historical View."

Kingsford, "History of Canada," vol. vi.

Bean, "Washington and Valley Forge."

All biography referred to in ch. xv.

Moore, G. H., "Treason of Charles Lee."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 168-169, 173, 180, 190, 198, 199-205.

"Grenville Papers."

Force, "American Archives," "Secret Journals of Congress."

Loménie, "Beaumarchais."

Walpole, Horace, "Journals."

Illustrative: See previous references.

Cooke, "Virginian Comedians," "Fairfax."

Hart, "Formation," §§ 41-42.

Lécky, "England," ch. xiv.

Simms, "Francis Marion."

Carrington, "Battles."

Kapp, "Life of Steuben."

Simcoe, "Queen's Rangers."

Part iii,
ch. xvii.
Fourth and
Fifth Years of
the Revolution-
ary War,
1778-1779.

Hough, "Charleston Year Books."

Jay, William, "Life of John Jay."

Fredericks, "In the Valley."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 54, 63, 64, 66, 70, 71, 75, 85, 86.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 145-160.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 198-205.

Fiske, "The War for Independence."

Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 150-178.

1. Who was to blame for the "winter of gloom," and how much of it might have been avoided? 2. What American statesman was working in Europe for his country's welfare? 3. What were the advantages of the alliance with France? 4. Contrast the ultimatum of the colonies in 1775 with the one issued in 1778.

§§ 262-274.
Pp. 185-191.

5. Why and how did General Clinton evacuate Philadelphia? 6. Repeat the story of Washington at Monmouth. 7. Account for the Indian cruelties in New York and Pennsylvania. 8. Describe the capture of Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes, stating the importance of this "invasion of the Northwest." 9. To whom was this capture of the Northwest mainly due? 10. What was the significance of the invasion of Georgia?

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part iii,
ch. xvii.
Fourth and
Fifth Years of
the Revolu-
tionary War,
1778-1779.

11. Summarize the advantages and disadvantages of the American forces and of the enemy in 1779. 12. How did Georgia come to be a royal colony again? 13. What were the exploits of "Mad Anthony" Wayne and of "Light Horse Harry" Lee in the summer of 1779? 14. Tell the story of the *Serapis vs. the Bon Homme Richard*. 15. What gallant action of the Americans failed of success at Savannah? 16. Where have you heard of Sergeant Jasper before? 17. What did the British army hold in December of 1779? Were they defeated?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part iii,
ch. xviii.
Sixth Year of
the Revolu-
tionary War,
1780.

General: See previous references in ch. xv-xvii. Hart, "Formation," § 42.
Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. vi, vii; vol. vii, ch. i.
Special: See previous references. Gordon, "Revolution."
Johnston, "Yorktown Campaign."
Ramsay, "Revolution of South Carolina from a British Province to an Independent State."
Hough, "Siege of Savannah."
McCall, "History of Georgia." Jones, "History of Georgia."
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 165, 174, 175-177, 182-183, 211-212.
Hart, "Source Book," no. 60. Tarleton, "Campaigns of 1780 and 1781."
University of North Carolina Magazine.
Illustrative: See previous references. Raymond, "Ballads of the Revolution."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 65, 72, 73, 87.
Bryant, "Song of Marion's Men."
Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 156-161.
Davidson, "United States," pp. 206-211.
Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 1-15.

§§ 275-283.
Pp. 192-197.

1. Describe the conditions under which Washington's army lived in 1780. 2. Who was the chief defender of Charleston? What do you know of his work before 1780? 3. Describe the siege of Charleston and Clinton's proclamation. 4. Why was the invading army embarrassed by the movements of Marion's men and Sumter's followers?

Questions for
developing
the text.

5. Who won at the battle of Camden? 6. What was the next move of Cornwallis and his forces? 7. Why has the battle of King's Mountain been called the "joyful turn of the tide"? 8. Describe as fully as you can the conditions and the motives which led Arnold to his treason. 9. What was his reward and his punishment?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part iii,
ch. xix.
Last Year of
the Revolu-
tionary War,
1781.

General: See previous references for Revolutionary War.
Winsor, "America," vol. vi, ch. vi; vol. vii, ch. i, ii, iii.
Lecky, "England," ch. xv, especially pp. 255-288, of the American Edition, vol. iv.
Hart, "Formation," §§ 42, 43, 44-47, 51.
Special: Johnson, "Life and Services of Nathanael Greene."
Graham, "Life of Daniel Morgan." Horry, "Life of Francis Marion."

Armstrong, "Life of Anthony Wayne." Draper, "King's Mountain."

See previous references to biography of American statesmen.

Snow, "Treaties and Topics in American Diplomacy."

Walker, "Political Economy," ch. iii-v, on paper currency and debased coin.

Johnson, "Introduction to Economics," ch. xv-xvi.

Illustrative: Tennyson, "England and America in 1782."

Churchill, "Richard Carvel."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. ii, nos. 206-209, 211-214, 215, 219, 220.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 63. Old South Leaflets, no. 2.

American History Leaflets, no. 20.

Lee, Henry, "Memoirs of the War in the Southern Department."

Washington, "Writings." Lafayette, "Memoirs."

Part iii,

ch. xix.

Last Year of
the Revolu-
tionary War-
1781.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Hill, "Camps and Firesides," nos. 62, 67, 74, 88, 89, 90, 91.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 161-166.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 211-220.

Fiske, "The War for Independence."

1. Review the troubles with continental paper currency during the war. §§ 284-294.

2. What could Robert Morris and John Laurens do to help relieve the financial condition? 3. Under what government was the last year of the Pp. 198-205.

war conducted?

4. Was the removal of Gates a loss to the Southern army? 5. What led to Morgan's victory at Cowpens? 6. Follow the retreat of the Continental army from Cowpens to Virginia, illustrating on a sketch map at the blackboard. 7. Who won at the battle of Guilford Court House? 8. How was South Carolina recovered for the patriots? Who were leaders in this campaign?

Questions for
developing
the text.

9. State definitely how the American army with the French fleet encircled Cornwallis at Yorktown. (Illustrate at blackboard.) 10. What were the immediate and the far-reaching results of the surrender of Cornwallis? 11. What had the Revolutionary War cost Great Britain? 12. What condition was claimed for each of the thirteen states by the Treaty of Paris of 1783? 13. What were the bounds of the United States?

14. What was Washington's plan of disbandment? 15. What was the condition of that army? 16. What honor followed Washington into his retirement at Mount Vernon?

PART IV. THE CONFEDERATION. 1781-1789

References: a. For use of teachers.

General: Channing, "The United States, 1765-1865."

Winsor, "America," vol. vii, ch. iii and iv.

Bancroft, "United States" (Index under Articles of Confederation, Northwest Ordinance, Constitutional Convention).

Hildreth, "United States" (Index under Articles of Confederation, Northwest Ordinance, Constitutional Convention).

Part iv,

ch. xx.

Strengthen-
ing the Gov-
ernment.

Part iv,
ch. xx.
Strengthen-
ing the Gov-
ernment.

Curtis, "History of the Constitution." Pitkin, "United States" (Index).
McMaster, "United States," vol. i.
Stephens, A. H., "War between the States."
Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 48-68.

Special: McLaughlin, "The Confederation and the Constitution" (American Nation Series, vol. x).

Johnson, "Introduction to Economics," ch. xv, on Money, and ch. xviii on Foreign Trade.

See previous references to American statesmen of period.

Fiske, "Critical Period."

Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic."

Dewey, "Financial History of the United States."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 37-41, 42-47, 54-75.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 64 and 65.

American History Leaflets, nos. 8, 22, 28.

Old South Leaflets, nos. 10, 12, 13.

Adams, "Works of John Adams."

Illustrative: Bird, "Nick of the Woods" (Ky.).

Roosevelt, "The Winning of the West."

Atherton, G. F., "The Conqueror" (Hamilton).

Wilson, "American People," vol. iii.

Bellamy, E., "Duke of Stockbridge" (Shays's Rebellion).

b. For use of pupils.

In class: "The Articles of Confederation." Opening and closing paragraphs
"The Constitution of the United States." Opening and closing paragraphs.

Optional reading: Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 179-182.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 168-180.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 217-220, 221-244.

§§ 295-306.

Pp. 206-214.

1. Review the steps taken to provide a general or national government to take the place of the British control over the colonies. 2. Why was this general government weak from the very outset? 3. What made the acts of Congress ineffective?

4. Just what were the western land claims of the various states? 5. How did the United States come to own the Northwest Territory? 6. What important provisions were contained in the Ordinance of 1787? 7. What settlement in the new lands followed this legislation? 8. Give the whole history of the "State of Frankland" and of John Sevier.

Questions for
developing
the text.

9. Why did the Americans' exports no longer pay for their imports? 10. How do you account for the lack of coin in the United States? 11. What other forms of money besides coin had been used in the colonies? 12. Define paper money, legal tender, stay laws, and debtor class. 13. Would the debtor or creditor class be in favor of issuing more paper money? *Support your answer with argument and illustrations about the effect of more money on prices. 14. What was the object of "Shays's Rebellion"?

15. What was the condition of the federal government both as a debtor and as a creditor? 16. What state urged other states to give Congress power to regulate commerce, and what more general movement came as a response?

17. What states were represented in the Constitutional Convention, and who presided?

Part iv,
ch. xx.

18. For what branches of government did the new Constitution provide?
19. State definitely, though briefly, the powers of Congress; of the President; of the Supreme Court. 20. Who may be a United States Senator? Representative? a President? Judge of the Supreme Court?

Strengthen-
ing the Gov-
ernment.

21. Why did the framers of the Constitution have to make compromises?

22. Give details of the chief compromises. 23. Give definite illustrations of large and of small states; of agricultural and of commercial states; of slave-labor and of free labor states. 24. How was the ratio of representation arranged? 25. How did this document, framed by the Convention of 1787, become our Constitution? 26. What statesmen helped most in getting this Constitution for us?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Lodge, "English Colonies in North America," ch. ii and xviii.

Schouler, "History of the United States," vol. i.

McMaster, "United States," vols. i and ii.

Bancroft, "United States." Hildreth, "United States," vol. iv.

Pitkin, "United States." Hart, "Formation of the Union," §§ 70-72.

Special: Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia."

Weeden, "Economic and Social History of New England."

Scudder, H. E., "Men and Manners in America a Hundred Years Ago."

Bassett, "The Federalist System" (American Nation Series, vol. xi).

Lives of Hamilton, Washington, Jay, Morris, John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Franklin, in American Statesmen Series.

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 10-18, 19, 20, 25-28, 31-36.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 66, 88, 89. Bowne, "Girl's Life Eighty Years Ago."

Graydon, "Memoirs."

Illustrative: Earle, A. M., "Two Centuries of Costume in America," "Stage-Coach and Tavern Days."

May, "In Old Quinnebasset." Brown, "Arthur Mervyn."

Part iv,
ch. xxi.
The Country
when Wash-
ington be-
came Presi-
dent.

b. For use of pupils.

In class. Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 31, 30, 21, 19, 16, 1, 2, 3, 5, 14.

Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 16-35.

1. Review the bounds of the United States in 1783. 2. How many states and how many people were affected by the new federal government?
3. What cities were in existence in the United States when Washington became President?

§§ 307-313.
Pp. 215-220.

4. Contrast agricultural conditions in the North and the South in 1789.
5. Why did the New Englander "take to the sea"? With what results?
6. Account for manufactures being so few and so crude in the United States. Name and describe them. 7. Describe the condition of jails. 8. Why was barter safer than selling for such money as men had to accept in 1789 in the United States?

Questions for
developing
the text.

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part iv,
ch. xxii.
Social Life in
Washington's
Time.

General : See references for ch. xxi.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, pp. 3-27. Sparks, "Expansion," pp. 135-187

Schouler, "United States," vol. i, pp. 1-12, 221-241.

Adams, "United States," vol. i, pp. 1-184.

Special : See references for ch. xxi.

Morse, "Thomas Jefferson." Hunt, "James Madison."

Sources : Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 10-18, 48-53.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 88, 89. Adams, "Letters of Abigail Adams."

Grant, "Memoirs of an American Lady."

Scudder, "Men and Manners in America."

Illustrative : See references for ch. xxi. Kennedy, "Swallow Barn."

Barr, "A Maid of Maiden Lane," "Trinity Bells."

b. For use of pupils.

In class : See references for ch. xxi.

Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 33, 42, 57-60, 61, 72, 100-104.

Optional reading : McMurry, "Pioneers on Land and Sea," pp. 227-261;
"Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley," ch. ix.

§§ 314-319.
Pp. 221-226.

1. Show the relative and actual size of the cities of the United States in 1790. 2. What were the means of lighting and heating houses? 3. Picture the furniture of a house of that time. In what part of it would you find chairs and tables of domestic manufacture? 4. Contrast the amusements of various sections and various cities of the country.

Questions for
developing
text.

5. How would you expect to find the men of the Constitutional Convention dressed? the women at the Philadelphia ball? 6. Tell about the daily life and dress of a day laborer. 7. What made up a frontiersman's life?

8. Describe a journey from Saybrook, Connecticut, to Boston by water, and thence by land to Ohio. Call your traveler Samuel Ludden, and picture him at taverns as well as in actual travel. 9. Contrast the schools, newspapers, and post offices of 1790 with those of 1890.

PART V. THE NEW GOVERNMENT. 1789-1817

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part v,
ch. xxiii.
Administra-
tion of George
Washington,
1789-1797.

General : Schouler, "United States," vol. i, pp. 70-220.

McMaster, "United States," vol. i, pp. 525-604; ii, pp. 24-89, 144-154; iii, pp. 116-123.

Walker, "Making of the Nation," pp. 73-114.

Channing, "The United States," 1763-1865, pp. 133-147.

Hildreth, "United States," vol. iv, ch. i-vi.

Bancroft, "United States," vol. vi. Hart, "Formation," §§ 72-88.

Special : Bassett, "The Federalist System" (American Nation Series, vol. xi).

Dewey, "Financial History of the United States."

Hinsdale, "The Old Northwest."

Lodge, "George Washington," vol. ii; "Alexander Hamilton."

Ford, "The True George Washington."

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|--|---|
| Schouler, "Thomas Jefferson." | Taussig, "Tariff History." |
| <i>Sources</i> : Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 76-82, 85-90, 92-97. | Maclay, "Journals." |
| Hart, "Source Book," nos. 71-74. | Stedman and Hutchinson, "Library of American Literature." |
| <i>Illustrative</i> : Cooper, "Pioneers." | Hale, "East and West." |
| Paulding, "Westward Ho!" | Upham, "Timothy Pickering." |
| Wilson, "American People," vol. iii. | |

Part v,
ch. xxiii.
Administra-
tion of George
Washington,
1789-1797.

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: "Washington's Farewell Address," Old South Leaflet, no. 4.
Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 36-52.
Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 6, 21, 15.
Optional reading: Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 53-67.
Davidson, "United States," pp. 247-255.
Thomas, "United States," pp. 181-193.
Baldwin, "Four Great Americans," "Washington," pp. 9-68.
Baldwin, "The Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 187-212.

1. Tell briefly the facts of George Washington's life until he became President, and add an estimate or appreciation of his character. 2. When, where, and how was the first President inaugurated? 3. Was it easy to begin house-keeping in the new national family, *i.e.* to get money for running expenses, to get rules for ordering details of the official life and departments? 4. How was it done?

§§ 320-336.
Pg. 227-235.

5. Name the first cabinet officers, and tell what offices have been added since then. 6. When did the Union include thirteen states? 7. What compromise settled the questions of assumption of state debts and of the new capital? 8. What stand did Congress take on the slavery questions? 9. Why was the national bank chartered in 1791?

Questions for
developing
the text.

10. Give from memory the gist of each of the first ten amendments, and tell their general purpose. 11. State accurately the views of members of the two great political parties active in Washington's presidency. 12. What law passed in 1792 made all commerce easier? 13. State some of the troubles with the coins previously used in the colonies and the United States. Name the chief advantages of a uniform coinage.

14. What proof of general satisfaction with the President and Vice President was given in 1792? 15. What invention of 1793 brought unexpected benefits and indirectly untold troubles to both North and South? 16. How were Indian troubles settled in 1794?

17. Under what circumstances did Washington issue the Neutrality Proclamation? 18. How did commercial troubles with Great Britain make it hard for America to keep her citizens neutral? 19. What was the purpose and what were the terms of Jay's Treaty? 20. Define impressment, contra-band, embargo, and privateer.

21. Trace the growth of the West and the admission of new states which were made out of United States territory. 22. State the results of the presidential election of 1796.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part v,
ch. xxiv.
Administra-
tion of
John Adams,
1797-1801.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. i, 426-514.

McMaster, "United States," vol. ii, 489-537.

Walker, "Making of the Nation," pp. 142-167.

Channing, "The United States," 1763-1865.

Johnston, "American Politics."

Hildreth, "United States," vol. v, ch. xv.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 88-92.

Special: Bassett, "Federalist System."

Lodge, "George Washington," vol. ii; "Alexander Hamilton."

Morse, "Thomas Jefferson," "John Adams."

Stevens, "Albert Gallatin."

Hunt, "James Madison."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 83, 91, 98, 99-105.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 75-77.

Hill, "Liberty Documents," ch. xviii.

Johnston's "American Orations," vol. i.

Jefferson, "Writings."

Illustrative: Eggleston, "American War Ballads."

Goodloe, "Calvert of Strathore."

Scannell, "Little Jarvis."

Brackenridge, "Modern Chivalry."

Cooke, "Leather Stocking and Silk."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Chapman, "How Our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 1-3, 7, 22.

Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," pp. 256-260.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 193-198.

Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 213-217.

Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 68-77.

§§ 337-342.

Pp. 236-239.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. Give several reasons why John Adams was in a difficult position when he became President in 1797.
2. Why did the Americans feel outraged over the X. Y. Z. affair?
3. What led to the treaty with France in 1800?
4. What ideas and conditions led Congress to pass the Alien and Sedition Acts? 5. Define each carefully.
6. On what grounds were the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions passed?
7. What was the immediate result and the lasting significance of these resolutions?
8. What saddened the whole country in 1799?
9. What other great man did Virginia give to the service of the United States in 1801? What was his chief work?
10. What beliefs controlled the presidential election of 1800? What results followed?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part v,
ch. xxv.

Administra-
tion of
Thomas
Jefferson,
1801-1809.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. ii, 1-194.

McMaster, "United States," vol. ii, 538-635; vol. iii, 1-338.

Wilson, "Presidents."

Winsor, "America," vol. vii, 310, 315-320, 336-341, 418-420, 527-547.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 94-105.

Walker, "Making of the Nation," pp. 168-213.

Special: Channing, "The Jeffersonian System" (American Nation Series, vol. 12).

- Adams, Henry, "History of United States," vols. i-iv.
 Morse, "Thomas Jefferson," pp. 209-300.
 Adams, Henry, "John Randolph," pp. 48-267.
 Gay, "James Madison," pp. 252-282.
 Lighton, "Lewis and Clarke." Brady, "Stephen Decatur."
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 106-122.
 Hart, "Source Book," no. 73. Works of Jefferson and of Madison.
 Dwight, Timothy, "Character of Thomas Jefferson," "Travels in New England and New York."
 Old South Leaflets, nos. 44, 104, 105, 128, 131.
Illustrative: Bynner, "Zachary Phips."
 Hale, "Man Without a Country."
 Seawell, "Decatur and Somers."

Part v,
 ch. xxv.
 Administra-
 tion of
 Thomas
 Jefferson,
 1801-1809.

b. For use of pupils.

- In class:* Hart and Chapman, "How Our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 8, 9, 75, 100.
 Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 78-93.
Optional reading: Hodgdon, "First Course," book ii, pp. 115-126.
 Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 213-229.
 McMurray, "Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains," ch. i.

1. Give a detailed account of the life and services of Thomas Jefferson before he became President in 1801. 2. Recall the conditions and motives which led to his election in 1800. §§ 343-354.
 Pp. 240-247.

3. Study a large map of northern Africa and of the northern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. Name the ports which were probably the usual goal of American trading vessels. 4. Give the whole story of the War with Tripoli. Questions for developing the text.

5. What was the special importance of the admission of Ohio as a new state? 6. Review carefully, with maps, the treaties of 1763 and 1783 with respect to extent of territory and boundaries. 7. Restate the Jay Treaty of 1795 as far as it concerned the Mississippi River and New Orleans. 8. Why did the United States buy and why did Napoleon sell the Louisiana Territory? 9. How did the United States come to realize the immense area of its purchase? 10. How did Aaron Burr lose the confidence of the people and his own reputation? Was he guilty?

11. How did each political party try to let the whole country share in providing candidates for presidential elections? Review the candidates for President and Vice President from 1788 to 1800, stating their party and native state. 12. What were the results of the election of 1804?

13. What war between France and Great Britain was fought while Jefferson was President of the United States? What were the objects, secret and avowed, of the war? 14. How was the United States profiting by it? 15. Describe the blockades and the purpose of each. 16. How was American commerce affected directly and indirectly? 17. How were national political affairs threatened?

Part v,
ch. xxv.
Administra-
tion of
Thomas
Jefferson,
1801-1809.

18. Describe and criticise Jefferson's embargo. 19. What section of our country suffered most from it and what protests were made? 20. Review the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799, and compare them with utterances in New England in 1806 to 1808.

21. What does the transportation equipment of our country to-day owe to an inventor of 1807? 22. What did Congress do in 1808 about the slavery question? 23. What candidates were selected, and who were elected, in 1808 for President and Vice President?

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part v,
ch. xxvi.
Administra-
tion of James
Madison,
1809-1816.

General : Stanwood, "Presidency," pp. 97-105.

Schouler, "United States," vol. ii, 194-444.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 81-88.

McMaster, "United States," vol. iii, 339-560; vol. iv, 1-279.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iii, 204-234.

Hildreth, "United States," vol. vi, 149-674.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 106-117.

Special : Babcock, "Rise of American Nationality" (Am. Nation Series, xiii).

Adams, Henry, "History of United States," vols. v-ix.

Schurz, "Henry Clay," vol. i, pp. 38-137.

Gay, "James Madison," pp. 283-337.

Roosevelt, "Naval War of 1812."

Lossing, "Pictorial Field Book of War of 1812."

Mahan, "War of 1812."

Maclay, "United States Navy," vol. i, 305-658; vol. ii, 3-22.

Sources : Adams, J. Q., "Memoirs," vols. ii and iii.

Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 122-128.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 84-87.

Randolph, John, "Letters to a Young Relative."

Dwight, "History of the Hartford Convention."

Coggeshall, "History of American Privateers."

Illustrative : Hale, "Philip Nolan's Friends."

Paulding, "Diverting History of John Bull."

Munroe, Kirk, "Midshipman Stuart." Pyle, Howard, "Within the Capes."

b. For use of pupils.

In class : Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 62, 73, 76, 77, 78-81, 89-94, 96, 97.

Lane and Hill, "American History in Literature," pp. 106-122.

Optional Reading : Thomas, "United States," pp. 215-228.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 272-287.

Eggleston, G. C., "Big Brother," "Captain Sam," "Signal Boys."

§§ 356-378.
Pp. 248-260.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. What had fitted James Madison for the office of President of the United States? 2. Why did Congress refuse to recharter the National Bank in 1811? 3. How far did Pennsylvania go in its denunciation of the National Bank? 4. Contrast Louisiana and Ohio as the most recent (in 1812) states to be admitted to the Union.

5. What did the *Little Belt* affair and Tecumseh's confederacy have to do

with the War of 1812? 6. Why did the Republican (Democratic) party desire war against Great Britain in 1812? 7. How did the United States come to be so utterly unprepared for war?

8. What were the two objects of the American military and naval movements? 9. Why did New England object to the war, and practically defy the United States in its failure to respond to the call for militia?

10. What was the plan, the course, and the result of the invasion of Canada? 11. Recount the American successes on the ocean. 12. Follow the course of the second invasion of Canada. 13. Where and when was the "second Valley Forge" experienced by American soldiers?

14. What led to General Andrew Jackson's attack on the Creeks at Horseshoe Bend? 15. Account for the American losses and disasters in 1814. 16. What President had to flee from Washington in 1814? When was he elected? Who was Vice President at the time? 17. What signal but unnecessary victory did the Americans win in 1815?

18. What were the terms of the Treaty of Ghent? 19. In what condition did the war leave the finances of the United States? 20. How did it affect world civilization? 21. Could the United States thank all her citizens for loyal support in the war? 22. How did the Hartford Convention affect the fortunes of the Federalist Party?

23. Describe the struggle of the Dey of Algiers with the United States. 24. What is the significance of the expression "the banks resumed specie payments"? 25. From what territory was Indiana formed? 26. What election proclaimed the downfall of the Federalist party?

Part v,
ch. xxvi.
Administra-
tion of James
Madison,
1809-1816.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Schouler, "United States," vols. ii and iii (use index).

McMaster, "United States," vol. iv, ch. xxxiii.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iii, 234-255.

Tucker, "History of United States," vol. iii, 146-408.

Adams, Henry, "History of United States," vols. v-viii.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 118-122.

Special: Morse, "John Quincy Adams."

Schurz, "Henry Clay."

Hunt, "John C. Calhoun."

Taussig, "Tariff History," pp. 1-24.

Hosmer, "Mississippi Valley," pp. 153-167.

Sparks, "Expansion," 220-274.

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 129, 137-139, 151, 152.

Dwight, "Travels in New England and New York," 1796-1813.

Melish, "Travels in the United States," 1806-1811.

Davis, John, "Travels of Five Years and a Half," 1798-1802.

MacDonald, "Select Documents," nos. 35-42.

Illustrative: Cooper, "The Prairie."

Roosevelt, "Winning of the West," vol. iv, ch. v.

Sargent, N., "Public Men and Events," vol. i, 17-56.

Gilman, "James Monroe."

Lodge, "Daniel Webster."

Stevens, "Albert Gallatin."

Dewey, "Financial History."

Turner, "New West."

Part v,
ch. xxvii.
The United
States in
1817.

Part v,
ch. xxvii.
The United
States in
1817.

Flint, J., "Recollections of the Last Ten Years" (1826).
Goodrich, S. G., "Recollections," vol. ii, 393-436.
Eggleston, E., "The Circuit Rider."

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 78-93.

Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 35, 43, 44, 63-65.

Optional Reading: Baldwin, "Conquest of the Old Northwest," pp. 230-239.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 286-287 and ch. x.

§§ 379-391.
Pp. 261-268.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. State approximately the population and the area of the United States in 1817. 2. Name the states and the territories within the United States. 3. Describe the "tide of emigration" to the West. 4. Give some interesting facts from the census of 1820 concerning the population of the United States.

5. Why were Europeans interested in the steamship *Savannah*? 6. What were the facilities for travel, transportation, and communication by land in 1817? 7. What were the positive and the possible costs of communication by mail? 8. Give an account of the financial condition of the country. 9. What substitute for gold and silver was used? 10. How was the reform of prisons and penalties begun?

11. Account for the great increase in manufactures in the United States during Madison's presidency. 12. What ideas were abroad in the land concerning the manufacturing industries in the United States? 13. How were the necessities of most families still supplied? 14. Why had slavery been given up north of Mason and Dixon's line? Why had it not extended into the Northwest? 15. What was the status of slavery in the Southern states? 16. How did the invention of the cotton gin and the manufacture of cotton goods influence slavery and the feeling about the tariff in the South?

17. How had newspapers improved since Revolutionary times? 18. What opportunities were offered to rich and to poor families for educating their children? 19. What differences did older men who traveled in the United States see in the cities? 20. What differences would a woman have noticed in costumes of both men and women?

PART VI. SECTIONAL DISSENSION. 1817-1861

References:

α. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxviii.
Administra-
tion of James
Monroe,
1817-1825.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. ii, 444-463; vol. iii, 1-335.

Hildreth, "United States," vol. vi, 575-713.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 89-102.

McMaster, "United States," vol. iv, 457-600; vol. v, 1-120.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iii, 234-266. Hart, "Formation," §§ 122-134

Special: Turner, "Rise of the New West."
Tucker, G. F., "Monroe Doctrine."
Morse, "J. Quincy Adams."
Sumner, "Andrew Jackson."

Taussig, "Tariff History."
Gilman, "James Monroe."

Thayer, "John Marshall."
Niles, "Register."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 131-136, 142-148, 153-154.
Hart, "Source Book," nos. 93, 94.

Part vi,
ch. xxviii.
Administra-
tion of James
Monroe,
1817-1825.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Chapman, nos. 45, 47, 105-107.

Selected paragraphs in Gilman, "Life of Monroe."

Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," pp. 288-293.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 229-241.

1. Name all the states which belonged to the Union in 1819, adding the date of admission of each, its location, and its attitude towards slavery in 1819.

§§ 392-402.
Pp. 269-278.

2. Define: speculation, panic, business failure, and bank loans. 3. What financial conditions prevailed in the United States in the early years of Monroe's presidency? 4. Who or what was blamed for these conditions? What were the real and the chief causes?

Questions for
developing
the text.

5. How did Jackson in the Seminole War come near to involving the United States in war with Spain and with Great Britain? 6. State the chief provisions of the treaty of 1818 between Great Britain and the United States, and the treaty of 1819 between Spain and the United States. Trace all these boundaries on maps.

7. Describe the growth of slavery in the thirteen English colonies and in the United States until 1820, naming sections, people, and industries which encouraged the fastening of the institution upon the South. 8. What was the political reason urged by the North for objecting to a majority of slave-labor states?

9. In what definite ways did the Northern and the Southern states differ in their political views? 10. What proposition brought out these different views in such a way as to threaten the Union in 1819 and 1820? 11. State the Missouri Compromise and criticise it. 12. What was Henry Clay's Compromise of 1821?

13. Under just what circumstances and with what views did President Monroe promulgate the Monroe Doctrine? 14. How did the people of the United States show their grateful memory of Lafayette's services? 15. What caused the question of internal improvements by the United States government to arise? 16. Name the object, the provisions, and the advocates of the first protective tariff act. Why did New England and the South oppose it? Give arguments of each side. 17. What new problem did the election of 1824 present? Who became President?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. iii, 336-450.

McMaster, "United States," vol. v, 121-487.

Part vi,
ch. xxix.

Part vi,
ch. xxix.
Administra-
tion of John
Quincy
Adams,
1825-1829.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 103-108.

Stanwood, "Presidential Elections," ch. xi.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iii, 266-291.

Hart, "Formation," §§ 134-140.

Special: Lodge, "Daniel Webster."

Hunt, "John C. Calhoun."

Turner, "New West" (American Nation Series, vol. xiv).

MacDonald, "Jacksonian Democracy" (American Nation Series, vol. xv).

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, 149-150, 155.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 91.

MacDonald, "Select Documents," pp. 43-45.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Chapman, nos. 10, 36.

Selected paragraphs from Morse, "John Quincy Adams."

Selected paragraphs from Schurz, "Henry Clay."

Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 94-102, 103-111.

Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," pp. 293-298.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 241-249.

§§ 403-407.
Pp. 279-283.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. Give the circumstances and the details of the treaty with the Lower Creeks. 2. What led to the second and the third treaties? 3. What trouble did this Indian land question make for the Federal government?

4. How did the Erie Canal "link up the East and the West"? Trace its route. 5. How did our great railroad network of to-day begin in 1809 and grow until 1833?

6. What trouble did the "Tariff of Abominations" make? 7. Compare New England's attitude towards the War of 1812 with the attitude of the South towards this tariff. 8. What new names were being given to political parties? Why has the election of 1828 been called a contest of men and not of parties?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxx.
Administra-
tion of
Andrew
Jackson,
1829-1837.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. iii, 451-507, 507-531.

McMaster, "United States," vol. v, 488-556; vol. vi, 1-388.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 109-132.

Sparks, "Expansion," pp. 290-296, 376-418.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, 40-75, 303-383.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 1-47; "American People," vol. iv, 1-87.

Special: MacDonald, "Jacksonian Democracy" (American Nation Series, vol. xv).

Hart, "Slavery and Abolition" (American Nation Series, vol. xvi).

Brown, "Lower South," pp. 16-49.

Hunt, "J. C. Calhoun."

Roosevelt, "Thomas H. Benton."

Turner, "New West."

Lalor, "Encyclopedia of Political Science" (articles on political parties).

Sumner, W. G., "American Currency."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 158-163, 165-166, 169-171, 174-176.

Old South Leaflets, 2d series, no. 6.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 95-97, 99, 102.

MacDonald, "Select Documents," 67, 75.

Smedes, "Southern Planter," pp. 17-189.

Olmsted, "Seaboard Slave States."

Illustrative: Tiernan, M. S., "Suzette, Va." Longstreet, "Georgia Scenes."
Johnston, R. M., "Old Times in Middle Georgia."
Harris, J. C., "Uncle Remus." Eggleston, E., "The Graysons."
Quincy, "Figures of the Past." Larcom, "New England Girlhood."

Part vi,
ch. xxx.
Administra-
tion of
Andrew
Jackson,
1829-1837.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Chapman, nos. 23, 37, 38, 39, 50, 108, 109-115.
Lane and Hill, "American History in Literature," pp. 124-128.
Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 112-120.

Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," pp. 309-317 and ch. x.
Thomas, "United States," pp. 250-270.

1. Why was Andrew Jackson elected President? Give every reason you can. 2. What men wished to share in his good fortune? §§ 408-416.
Pp. 284-293.
3. What stand had Congress taken on the slavery question in 1790?
4. What group of people was unwilling to let this decision rest? 5. What Questions for
developing
the text.
6. How was it received by people in
general in the North and in the South? By politicians? By business men?
- By the Church?
7. What was the treatment of the free negro at the North? 8. Picture
the life of the negro in slavery at the South. 9. How did the agitation of
the abolitionist affect the slaves' condition in the South?
10. By what states and under what circumstances was Federal authority
questioned in Jackson's first administration? 11. What changes in names
and customs were introduced during the presidential election of 1832?
12. What was the chief issue, and what was Jackson's pledge? 13. How
did he keep that pledge?
14. What led to the ordinance, passed by the South Carolina legislature,
to nullify the United States Tariff Act within her borders? What resulted?
15. What great men expounded their views on the Constitution, on union, and
on the right of nullification in 1830 and in 1833? What was the ground
taken by each? 16. What States up to this time had proclaimed the doc-
trine of nullification? State the form and the provocation in each case.
17. What did Clay's compromise do to settle this South Carolina case?
18. What new admissions to statehood kept the balance between slave-labor
and free-labor states in 1836-1837?
19. Who colonized Texas? 20. Explain the significance of the cry
"Remember the Alamo!" 21. When and how did Texas become a recog-
nized republic? 22. What were the arguments for and against making Texas
a state under our Federal control?
23. Who were the candidates in the election of 1836? Who won?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Stanwood, "Presidential Elections," ch. xiv. and xv.
Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 133-139.
McMaster, "United States," vol. xi, 389-637.

Part vi,
ch. xxxi.

Part vi,
ch. xxxi.
Administra-
tion of Martin
Van Buren,
1837-1841.

- Schouler, "United States," vol. iv, 282-358.
Adams, "United States," vol. ix.
Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 88-92.
Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 48-58.
Special: Shepard, "Martin Van Buren," ch. viii-x. Hunt, "John C. Calhoun."
Bourne, "Surplus Revenue of 1837." Hart, "Slavery and Abolition."
Peck, "The Jacksonian Epoch." Schurz, "Henry Clay," vol. ii.
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, 181-183, 186.
Kendall, Amos, "Autobiography." Benton, "Thirty Years' View," vol. i.

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Davidson, "United States," pp. 317-321.

Thomas, "United States," pp. 271-275.

Optional reading: Index under "Money," "Currency," "Paper Money," "Banks," in any of the text-books they have used so far. Make out brief notes of reading on these subjects from colonial days to 1841.

§§ 417-420.
Pp. 294-297.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. Was Van Buren as President to blame for the Panic of 1837? 2. Could any action of his have prevented it? Could Congress by any law passed in 1836 or 1837 have averted it? 3. Does the increase of paper money add to the wealth of a country? Why do people think so? 4. Describe the specie circular; the surplus loans to states; the runs on banks. 5. How did the financial panic affect the whole industrial life of the United States that year? 6. Explain one remedy urged by Van Buren in 1840. 7. What attitude did Congress adopt towards petitions from the Abolitionists, and on its own right to abolish slavery? 8. What was Osceola fighting about? 9. What made the presidential campaign of 1840 exciting? 10. Why did the Whig party win?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxxii.
Administra-
tion of Harri-
son and
Tyler, 1841-
1845.

- General*: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 140-148.
Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 88-128.
Channing, "United States," pp. 224-230.
Schouler, "United States," vol. iv, 359-550.
Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, 75-98.
Sparks, "Expansion," pp. 296-309.
Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 60-73.
Special: Garrison, "Western Extension" (American Nation Series, vol. 17).
Smith, "Parties and Slavery" (American Nation Series, vol. 18).
Stephens, A. H., "Constitutional View."
Smith, "Liberty and Free Soil Parties."
Semple, "Geographical Conditions."
Dewey, "Financial History," §§ 102-109. Winn, "Mormons."
Bourne, "Essays in Historical Criticism," pp. 3-99.
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 178, 183, 184, 187-189.
Hart, "Source Book," nos. 98, 101. Caldwell, "Territorial Government."
Illustrative: Trollope, "Domestic Manners of the Americans."
Longstreet, "Georgia Scenes." Hawthorne, "Blithedale Romance."

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Chapman, "How our Grandfathers Lived," nos. 12, 13, 49.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 321-333.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 275-286.

Stone and Fickett, "Days and Deeds," pp. 121-130.

1. Why was William Henry Harrison a candidate for President? 2. What hastened his death soon after he came into office? 3. Would the Whig party have voted for John Tyler as President? What are the reasons for your opinion? 4. Why did Daniel Webster remain in Tyler's cabinet?

5. Give details of the Ashburton Treaty and its forerunner (§ 410). 6. Why did Maine accept the award? 7. Under what circumstances was the Dorr War originated and brought to a close?

8. What led to the telegraphic message, "What hath God wrought!"? 9. What was the religion of the Mormons, and the difficulty of establishing it? 10. Point out on a large wall map or a sketch map on the blackboard the scene of Frémont's adventures and of Whitman's endeavors.

Part vi,
ch. xxxii.
Administra-
tion of Harri-
son and
Tyler, 1841-
1845.

§§ 421-430.
Pp. 298-303.

Questions for
developing
the text.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 149-158.

Schouler, "United States," vol. v, 1-128.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 73-80.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 128-141.

Special: Smith, "Parties and Slavery."

Jay, "Mexican War."

Wright, "General Scott."

Elliott, "Sam Houston."

Garrison, "Texas."

Royce, "California."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iii, nos. 187-189; vol. iv, 8-14, 15-17.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 100, 103-105.

Grant, "Memoirs."

Benton, "Thirty Years' View," vol. ii.

Illustrative: Lowell, "Biglow Papers" (first series).

Whittier, "Angels of Buena Vista."

Part vi,
ch. xxxiii.
Administra-
tion of James
K. Polk,
1845-1849.

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Lane and Hill, pp. 128-133. Davidson, "United States," pp. 333-347.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 286-300.

1. What training did Polk have for the presidency? 2. What two territorial questions figured as issues in his presidential campaign? 3. What was the demand of Democrats for Oregon? 4. Discuss the Oregon Compromise.

§§ 431-440.
Pp. 304-311.

5. How many slave-labor states belonged to the United States when Texas was admitted? 6. How much did Texas cost the United States government? 7. State details of events leading to the Mexican War. 8. Which section bore the brunt of the war in furnishing men? 9. Recount the military operations of General Taylor, using a sketch map to illustrate. 10. Follow in similar way the march and conquests of General Kearney. How did Frémont supplement Kearney's work? 11. Why is the march of General Scott called one of the most remarkable in modern history?

Questions for
developing
the text.

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxxiv.
Progress of
the Country,
1849.

- General*: Schouler, "United States," vols. iv and v.
Sparks, "Expansion," pp. 296-309, 319-335.
Wilson, "American People," vol. iv. Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, ch. iv.
Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 81, 82, 83.
Special: Morse, "Abraham Lincoln." McLaughlin, "Lewis Cass."
Bolles, "Financial History," vol. ii, 434-466.
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, 18.
Adams, J. Q., "Memoirs," vol. xii. Kendall, "Autobiography."
Calhoun, Works of McGregor, "Progress of America."
Illustrative: Hall, Ruth, "Downreuter's Son" (anti-rent).
Morris, "Historical Tales," pp. 255-269 (telegraph).
Dana, "Two Years Before the Mast," (Cal.).
Atherton, "Splendid Idle Forties" (Cal.).

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: Lane and Hill, pp. 135-140.
Thomas, "United States," 258-267, 297-298.
Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," nos. 1-4.
Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," review ch. x.

§§ 441-452.
Pp. 312-325.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. State the boundaries of the United States in 1849 and mention ten states of the present day which were unorganized and unnamed in 1849.
2. Which states ranked highest in population? Which cities?
3. Contrast progress in travel, transportation, and communication in 1789 and 1849; in 1849 and 1909. (This must include §§ 441, 445, and 449.)
4. Describe the "infant cities" of 1849.
5. What were the chief manufactures and the centers of manufacturing in the United States in 1849?
6. What do pictures in books of 1849 reveal regarding the dress of men and women?
7. In how many daily newspapers might news of the "Forty-niners" be found in 1850?
8. What new inventions of great importance were slowly making their way in 1849?
9. Describe the life, journeys, troubles, gains, and losses of the "Forty-niners."
10. Which kind of labor prevailed in California, slave or free? Why?

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxxv.
Administra-
tions of
Taylor and
Fillmore,
1849-1853.

- General*: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 159-166.
Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, 99-302.
Schouler, "United States," vol. v, 100-267.
Stanwood, "Presidency," 226-257.
Macy, "Political Parties," 102-161.
Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 84-89.
Special: Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."
Brown, "Lower South." McDougall, "Fugitive Slaves," §§ 19-83.
Siebert, "Underground Railroad." Lodge, "Daniel Webster," 265-333.
Bancroft, "William H. Seward," vol. i, 156-332. Pendleton, "A. H. Stephens."
Illustrative: Lowell, "Biglow Papers" (first series).
Harte, "Luck of Roaring Camp." Monroe, Kirk, "Golden Days of '49."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 7, 17-33.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 106-107.

Macdonald, "Select Documents," nos. 77-82.

Johnston, "American Orations," vol. ii, 123-340.

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Lane and Hill, "History in American Literature," pp. 134, 140-143.

Hart and Stevens, nos. 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," 299-307.

Part vi,
ch. xxxv.
Administra-
tions of
Taylor and
Fillmore,
1849-1853.

1. What services had Taylor already rendered to the United States?
2. What brought the slavery question to the front immediately?
3. What were the demands of the North? The offers of the South?
4. Why did secession seem more and more necessary and probable in the South after 1849?
5. What would make the South feel it must leave the Union?
6. What were the provisions of Henry Clay's Compromise of 1850?
7. Why was Clay able to influence his country so strongly in 1820 and in 1850?
8. Who supported and who opposed the "Great Pacificator" on this measure? Give the gist of their arguments.
9. What new idea did William Seward propound?
10. What was the fate of the Compromise of 1850?
11. What change had come in the White House meanwhile?
12. Why was it the task of the Federal officials to secure the return of runaway slaves?
13. What land did Texas have to relinquish by the terms of the compromise?
14. Account for the results of the presidential election of 1852.

§§ 453-461.
Pp. 326-331.

Questions for
developing
the text.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 167-178.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. i, 384-506; vol. ii, 1-414.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 90-94.

Special: Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."

Brown, "Lower South," 50-82; "S. A. Douglas," 82-128.

Taussig, "Tariff History," 115-154. Spring, "Kansas."

Morse, "Abraham Lincoln," vol. i. Storey, "Charles Sumner."

Sources: Hart, "Source Book," nos. 108-110.

Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 34-40, 41-43.

Johnston, "American Orations," vol. iii. Helper, "Impending Crisis."

Illustrative: Winthrop, "John Brent" (Far West). Orpen, "Jay-Hawkers."

Part vi,
ch. xxxvi.
Administra-
tion of
Franklin
Pierce,
1853-1857.

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," no. 16.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 313-318.

1. What had been the home, the services to state and country, and the political views of Franklin Pierce before he became President?
2. What land purchase was made to complete territorial grants and conquests in the West?
3. Could the Compromise of 1850 silence argument on the slavery question?

§§ 462-467.
Pp. 332-336

Part vi,
ch. xxxvi.
Administra-
tion of
Franklin
Pierce,
1853-1857.

Questions for
developing
the text.

4. What previous act, passed by Congress, was held by states' rights men to be unconstitutional? 5. What is the only means provided by the Constitution of the United States for deciding whether an Act of Congress is constitutional?

6. Who supported the Kansas-Nebraska Bill? 7. Define "squatter sovereignty" and the application of the doctrine. 8. Why did both the North and the South fight so hard and so bitterly for Kansas? With what results?

9. Describe the guerrilla warfare in Kansas and the work of John Brown.

10. How were the Northern states nullifying the Federal law about fugitive slaves? What was their ground for such action? 11. How did the "underground railroad" help the escape of fugitive slaves? 12. Describe the political parties, their factions, leaders, and platforms at the presidential election of 1856.

13. What was the result of each party's work in that election?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part vi,
ch. xxxvii.
Administra-
tion of James
Buchanan,
1857-1861.

General: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 179-196.

Schouler, "United States," vol. v, 454-512; vol. vi, 1-50.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. ii, 416-502; vol. iii, 115-354.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 145-208.

Dodge, "Civil War."

Macy, "Political Parties," 283-317.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 98-103.

Special: Chadwick, "Causes of the Civil War."

Smith, "Parties and Slavery."

Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."

Hart, "S. P. Chase."

Ropes, "Civil War," vol. i, 1-97.

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 44-48, 49-52, 53-62, 63-69.

MacDonald, "Select Documents," nos. 114, 115.

Johnston, "American Orations," vol. iii, 230-329; vol. iv, 16-81.

American History Leaflets, nos. 12 and 18.

Illustrative: Fox, "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come."

Burwell, "Girl's Life in Virginia before the War."

Paterson, "For Freedom's Sake."

Derby, "Phoenixiana" (California).

Conway, "Pine and Palm."

Barton, "Pine Knot."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," nos. 9, 10, 11, 17.

Selected paragraphs from Fox, "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come."

Optional reading: Brooks, "Boy Settlers" (Kansas).

Thomas, "United States," 318-326.

§§ 468-479.
Pp. 337-346.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. Why did James Buchanan seem a desirable candidate for President? 2. What public agitation stirred the nation during Buchanan's first year in office? 3. State carefully the Dred Scott case and decision.

4. How did Republicans receive the Dred Scott decision?

5. In whose successful work did the whole nation rejoice in 1858?

6. Describe the purpose, work, and fate of John Brown at Harper's Ferry.

7. Why did people in the North as well as in the South condemn John Brown? 8. What were the parties, the platforms, and the names of the presidential candidates of 1860?

9. Recount the object and the course of secession in the South.
10. Review all threats of secession and of nullification which had been made in any part of the Union up to 1860.
11. What was the idea in the South regarding the right to secede (§§ 474-475)?
12. Was there a popular or a settled general opinion in the North concerning it (§ 476)?
13. What was the common interpretation of the Constitution in regard to union and secession in 1789 (§ 475)?
14. Describe the attempts at compromise and review the history of the other great compromises in United States History.
15. What danger to the nation's life did Union men see in the practice of secession (§ 475)?
16. What was the result of the peace conference proposed by Virginia?
17. Was the South hasty and eager in its secession? Support your answer with facts.
18. What senators were added to those left in Congress in 1861?
19. What was the attitude of President Buchanan toward secession?
20. State the object of the Commissioners sent from South Carolina to the President.
21. Why did President Buchanan dispatch the *Star of the West* to Fort Sumter, and why did the South Carolina militia fire upon it?
22. What were the general principles laid down in the Constitution of the Confederate States of America?
23. Why were Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens the choice of the Confederacy for leaders?
24. What was the exact situation at the close of President Buchanan's administration?

Part vi,
ch. xxxvii.
Administra-
tion of James
Buchanan,
1857-1861.

PART VII. THE CIVIL WAR. 1861-1865

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- General*: Rhodes, "United States," vol. iii, I-II4. 357-637.
 Schouler, "United States," vol. v, 260-269, vol. vi, 318-341.
 Wilson, "American People," iv. 208-214; "Division and Reunion" §§ 104-108.
- Special*: Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."
 Bancroft, "William H. Seward." Chadwick, "Causes of the Civil War."
 Morse, "Abraham Lincoln." Lee, "General Lee."
 Hosmer, "The Appeal to Arms" ("American Nation Series," vol. xx).
 Ropes, "Civil War," vol. i, 98-274.
- Sources*: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 70-74, 75-78, 96-99, 102-106.
 Hart, "Source Book," nos. 113-117. Old South Leaflets, 3d Series.
 MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. I-II. Cairnes, "Slave Powers."
 Olmsted, "Cotton Kingdom." Smedes, "Southern Planter."
Illustrative: Fuller, "Pratt's Portraits." Churchill, "The Crisis."
 Fox, "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come." Page, "Red Rock."
 Burnett, "Concerning the de Willoughby Claims."
 Hull, "Boy Soldiers of the Confederacy."
 Smith, F. H., "Fortunes of Oliver Horn."

Part vii.
ch. xxxviii.
First year of
the Civil
War, 1861.

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: Hart and Stevens, nos. 19, 22, 29, 50-51.
 Lane and Hill, "American History in Literature," pp. 152-154.

Part vii,
ch. xxxviii.
First year of
the Civil
War, 1861.

Page, "In Ole Virginia" (selections).
Bryant, "Our Country's Call."

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," 326-340.
Cooke, "Surry of Eagle's Nest."

§§ 480-493.
Pp. 347-357.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. What had been the life of Abraham Lincoln up to 1861? of Jefferson Davis?

2. Review the election platforms and candidates of 1860. 3. Why was Lincoln's inauguration a time of anxious precautions? 4. What idea of the Union, and of his own duty in maintaining it, did Lincoln give in his inaugural address? 5. How did the South receive his words? 6. Why did the Confederate commissioners fail to adjust matters at Washington?

7. Why, how, and when did Fort Sumter fall? 8. What was the effect of this action of the South upon the North and the South? 9. What Southern states had seceded by June 8, 1861? 10. Why could not the Border states be neutral? 11. Give the facts concerning western Virginia.

12. Contrast the resources of the North and the South. 13. Why did the South assume the defensive? 14. What was the advantage of this? 15. What were the disadvantages?

16. What was the object of the first campaign? Name opposing leaders and positions.

17. Give details of the first battle of Bull Run or Manassas, and its effects upon the North and the South. 18. What was the object of sending Confederate commissioners to Europe? 19. State definitely the cause for which the Union men were fighting in 1861.

20. What war measure of the North involved the slavery question? 21. What were the results of the first year of the Civil War?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part vii,
ch. xxxix.
Second year
of the Civil
War, 1862.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. vi.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. iv, 1-212.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 214-232.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 109-111.

Special: Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."

Fiske, "Mississippi Valley in the Civil War," 1-178.

Soley, "Blockade and the Cruisers."

Henderson, "Stonewall Jackson."

Ropes, "Civil War," vol. ii

Lee, "General Lee."

Sources: Hart, "Source Book," nos. 118-120.

Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 86, 93, 92, 107-116, 126-128.

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 12-27.

Grant, "Personal Memoirs."

Alexander, "Military Memoirs of a Confederate."

Illustrative: Crane, "The Red Badge of Courage."

Hosmer, "The Thinking Bayonet."

Biglow Papers (2d series).

La Bree, "Camp Fires of the Confederacy."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hale, "Stories of the War."

McCarthy, "Soldier Life in the Army of Northern Virginia."

Optional reading: Trowbridge, "Cudjo's Cave."

Knox, "The Lost Army."

Part vii,

ch. xxxix.

Second year
of the Civil
War, 1862.

Hart and Stevens, "Romance of the Civil War," nos. 43, 44, 47, 48.

1. Contrast the opposing forces in the beginning of the second year of the war. 2. What were the Federal plans for their campaigns?

3. How were the Confederate forces protecting Forts Henry and Donelson? Why did they desire to hold them? How did Union forces succeed in taking them? What was their particular gain in this action?

§§ 494-515.

Pp. 358-373.

4. Describe General Albert Sidney Johnston's gallant action at Shiloh.

5. Why was the Confederate army anxious to hold Corinth? 6. How did the Mississippi forts fall into the hands of the Federals? (Illustrate this with a sketch map as you answer.) 7. Why did the Confederates lose their hold on northern Arkansas?

Questions
for develop-
ing the text.

8. What was the position of the armies in Virginia at the opening of the Peninsular Campaign? 9. Describe McClellan's plan and his advance.

10. How was he checked by Magruder and Johnston? 11. What did the cry, "On to Richmond," mean to the South? To the North? 12. How did General Johnston's army prevent that march?

13. Describe General Robert E. Lee's training for the chief command which was given him after the battle of Fair Oaks. 14. What were the successes of "Stonewall" Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley, and what great fear did he arouse in the North? 15. Locate and explain the object of each of Jackson's six battles. Give a summary of his gains. 16. By what battles and movements did the Federal campaign in the Peninsula fail? What effect did this have upon the North? Upon the South?

17. What was the strategic importance of Chattanooga to the South?

18. How did Bragg take the offensive in the West? How did Buell meet him at Perryville? Why did he withdraw to Chattanooga? 19. How near a failure had this movement seemed to be? 20. What was the key to the Federal position in the West in October, 1862? How did the Union army hold it against Van Dorn and Price?

21. Describe General Grant's plan for the Army of the Tennessee in 1862.

22. Who was his able cooperating general? 23. What work of Confederate cavalrymen made Grant and Sherman retreat? 24. What are the details of the battle of Murfreesboro? 25. Sum up the work of the Confederates in the West in the latter half of 1862.

26. What were the Confederate plans for the latter half of 1862 in the East? 27. Review the battles of Cross Keys and Port Republic. 28. What became of the defeated armies of Banks and Frémont?

29. Give the strategic importance of General Lee's movements in August, 1862. 30. Why did he decide not to follow the retreating Federal army to the very city of Washington? 31. Why did he advance into Maryland? 32. What gain was made by General Jackson's forces at Harper's Ferry? Discuss its vital importance. 33. Explain why Antietam had the effect of a Union victory.

Part vii,
ch. xxxix.
Second year
of the Civil
War, 1862.

34. Narrate the details of General Burnside's repulse at Fredericksburg.
35. With a sketch map to illustrate your story, make a complete recital of the contest of the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. What was its significance in this war? In naval history? 36. Why did the North need 10 draft soldiers into the Federal army? 37. What did the Confederate conscription laws demand? 38. Sum up definitely the results of the war in 1862.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part vii,
ch. xl. Third
year of the
Civil War,
1863.

General: Rhodes, "United States," vol. iv, 212-423.

Schouler, "United States," vol. vii.

Wilson, "American People," iv, 232-253.

"Cambridge Modern History," vol. vii.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 110-173.

Special: Davis, "Rise and Fall of the Confederate States."

McCarthy, "Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction."

Fiske, "Mississippi Valley in the Civil War."

Doubleday, "Chancellorsville and Gettysburg."

Mahan, "Gulfs and Inland Waters."

White, "Robert E. Lee."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, 87, 89-90, 94-95, 100, 117-123, 129-130.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 121-123.

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 28-35.

Johnston, "American Orations," vol. iv.

Alexander, "Military Memoirs of a Confederate."

Grant, "Personal Memoirs."

Illustrative: Churchill, "The Crisis," and other references in ch. xxxviii.

Harrison, "Flower de Hundred."

Ryan, "The Sword of Lee."

Thompson, "High Tide at Gettysburg."

Eggleston, "American War Ballads."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Lane and Hiil, "American History in Literature," pp. 146-147; 147-148.

Stedman, "Gettysburg."

Hart and Stevens, nos. 36-42, 49.

Ticknor, "Little Giffen."

Optional reading: Alcott, "Hospital Sketches." Page, "Two Little Confederates."

Davidson, "United States," pp. 423-437.

§§ 516-526.
Pp. 374-384.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. On what grounds was the Emancipation Proclamation issued? 2. Had Lincoln been inconsistent? How was West Virginia admitted to the Union?

4. Who superseded Burnside, and whom had he superseded? 5. Contrast the forces in the Army of the Potomac and the Army of Northern Virginia.
6. Describe the battle at Chancellorsville, giving the movements which preceded and followed it. 7. What did that victory cost the South? 8. What new commander took charge of the Army of the Potomac and what had been his previous record?

9. What was General Lee's purpose in advancing into Pennsylvania?
10. Picture the Southern army at Seminary Ridge. 11. Can both Southern and Northern veterans of the Civil War be proud of their armies at Gettysburg?

12. What was the plan of Grant's second campaign for opening the Mississippi for the Federals? 13. Describe the siege of Vicksburg. 14. Why did the Confederate army feel so keenly its loss in this campaign? Part vii, ch. xl. Third year of the Civil War, 1863.
15. How did the Confederates fail to hold their positions in eastern Tennessee? 16. What Union generals were active in the campaign about Chattanooga and Knoxville? 17. Why have Chickamauga and Lookout Mountain become familiar names to those who listen to veterans of the Civil War?
18. What gallant, stubborn resistance did the Confederates make at Charleston? 19. Contrast the resources of the South and the North at the close of 1863.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- General*: Rhodes, "United States," vol. v, 423-539, vol. vi, 1-50.
 Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 253-256.
 Stanwood, "Presidency," 298-312.
 Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 113-115.
Special: Longstreet, "Manassas to Appomattox."
 Schwab, "Confederate States of America."
 Maclay, "United States Navy," vol. 11, 397-456, 475-507, 549-559.
 Pond, "Shenandoah Valley in 1864." Cox, "Atlanta"; "March to the Sea."
 Mahan, "Admiral Farragut," pp. 237-326.
 Gordon, "Last Days of the Confederacy."
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 85, 101, 131-138.
 Hart, "Source Book," no. 124.
 MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 36-42. Dana, "Recollections."
 Brooks, "Washington in Lincoln's Time." Grant, "Personal Memoirs."
Illustrative: Andrews, "War Time Journal of a Georgia Girl."
 Benson, "Friend with the Countersign." Page, T. N., "Among the Camps."
 Avary, M. L., "Virginia Girl in the Civil War."

Part vii,
 ch. xli.
 Fourth year
 of the Civil
 War, 1864.

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: Lane and Hill, "American History in Literature," pp. 149-150.
 Hart and Stevens, nos. 62, 93, 95, 98.
Optional reading: Page, "Two Little Confederates."
 Alcott, "Hospital Sketches."

1. Give briefly the gains and losses of both sides in the Civil War up to the opening of the year 1864. 2. What were the frontiers to be defended by the Confederacy? 3. Describe the Red River Expedition. 4. What other successes did the Confederacy have early in 1864? §§ 527-552. Pp. 385-399.
5. What change was made in the command of the Federal forces? Re-count the history of General Grant up to this time. 6. What problems confronted General Lee that were not so difficult for his opponent to solve? 7. State definitely the plans of the "Great Campaigns" for 1864. Questions for developing the text.
8. How was Richmond to be surrounded? 9. What led to the Battle of the Wilderness, and what was the result? 10. Describe the way General Lee kept General Grant at bay in northern Virginia about Spottsylvania.

Part vii,
ch. xli.
Fourth year
of the Civil
War, 1864.

11. What results had come to armies, to reputations, and to plans, by the third of June, 1864, from General Grant's "hammering process"?

12. Account for the failures of the coöperating armies. Which one gave cause for the most chagrin at the North? 13. Under what circumstances did General Grant decide to lay siege to Petersburg?

14. Contrast the forces used by the Confederacy and the Union for the Georgia campaign. 15. Describe General Johnston's policy in northern Georgia before his retreat to Atlanta. 16. What cavalry leader of the Confederates was a "thorn in the flesh" to General Sherman in this campaign? 17. Compare the methods and fate of General Joseph E. Johnston and of General McClellan.

18. What were the object and the outcome of General Early's advance to Washington? 19. Why did General Philip H. Sheridan make a "barren waste" of the Shenandoah Valley? 20. What did this mean to the Confederacy?

21. Describe the affair at the "Crater." 22. What new problem did General Lee have to meet when Grant changed his tactics before Petersburg and Richmond?

23. What general succeeded Johnston in Georgia, and what was his policy? 24. How did the Federals get possession of Atlanta? 25. What was the object of General Hood's next move? 26. What is the chief source of information for the details of Sherman's "March to the Sea"? 27. What was the object of the destruction ordered by General Sherman? 28. What did Sherman's entrance to Savannah mean to the South? To the North? 29. What had General Hood's army suffered before it went into winter quarters in 1864?

30. What harm did Admiral Farragut do to the Confederate navy in 1864? 31. What gave rise to the famous "Alabama Claims"? 32. What non-political events helped to decide the presidential election of 1864? 33. Who were the candidates?

34. How many states had been admitted to the Union by 1864? 35. How many states would have claimed that they were in the Union at that time? 36. What States were represented by the stars in the Confederate flag?

37. State definitely the results of the war by the end of 1864.

References :

a. For use of teachers.

Part vii,
ch. xlii.
The end of
the Civil
War, 1865.

General: Schouler, "United States," vol. vi.

Rhodes, "United States," vol. v, 50-188.

Wilson, "American People," vol. iv, 257-262.

Dodge, "Civil War."

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," § 116.

Special: Hosmer, "Outcome of the Civil War" (American Nation Series, vol. xxi).

Dunning, "Civil War and Reconstruction." Gordon, J. B., "Reminiscences."

Humphreys, "Virginia Campaigns of '64 and '65."

Mahan, "Gulf and Inland Waters."

Hapgood, "Abraham Lincoln."

Davies, "General Sheridan."

White, "Robert E. Lee."

Coppée, "General Thomas."

Sources : Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 139-140, 147.

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 43-48. Grant, "Personal Memoirs."

Semmes, "Service Afloat."

Johnston, "Narrative."

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 125-127, 129-131.

Illustrative : Page, T. N., "Burial of the Guns."

Harris, J. C., "On the Plantation."

Dickinson, A. E., "What Answer?"

Holmes, "In War Time."

Howe, DeWolfe, "Memory of Lincoln."

Part vii,
ch. xlii.
The end of
the Civil
War, 1865.

b. For use of pupils.

In class : Lane and Hill, "American History in Literature," pp. 150-151, 152-155.

Lowell, "Commemoration Ode."

Hart and Stevens, nos. 88, 89.

Turner, "The Confederate Note."

Optional reading : Thomas, "United States," pp. 380-385.

Page, "Burial of the Guns."

1. What was the offensive campaign planned for 1865? 2. What was the condition of General Lee's army, and what were his plans? 3. Trace and describe Sherman's march through the Carolinas.

§§ 553-565.
Pp. 400-407.

4. What was Grant's object at Five Forks? 5. What was the plight of the Confederate line at Petersburg on April 2? 6. What great hope and duty of the Confederate forces had to be sacrificed when Lee retreated? 7. What was Lee's purpose in his retreat from Petersburg? 8. Describe the retreat.

Questions for
developing
the text.

9. Under what circumstances did General Lee surrender? 10. How did General Grant treat his brave countrymen?

11. What did the South lose by Lincoln's death? 12. What did the Union lose? 13. What were the closing events of the war? 14. Did the terms given by Grant to General Lee and his army offer security to the President of the Confederate States?

15. What did the war cost in lives? In money? In property? 16. Did any leader on either side lose his reputation as a man? As a soldier? As a leader? 17. Was there a "Benedict Arnold" or a "Charles Lee" on either side in the war? 18. How did the United States government and the government of the Confederate States raise money for carrying on the war? 19. What became the common fate of paper money issued by both governments? (See §§ 564 and 568.)

20. What can a war decide about a controversy? 21. What was the foremost result of the Civil War? 22. What was the second? 23. Was the terrible sacrifice of life, of treasure, of public institutions, and of private property all in vain?

References :

a. For use of teachers.

General : See previous references for chapters on the Civil War.

Rhodes, vol. v, ch. xxvii-xxix.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 117-123.

Wilson, "American People," pp. 265-312.

Special : Davis, "Life of Jefferson Davis."

Hosmer, "Outcome of the Civil War."

Part vii,
ch. xliii.
Life in the
Confederacy

Part vii,
ch. xliii.
Life in the
Confederacy.

Sources: See previous references for chapters.

Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 92, 141-144.

Illustrative: See previous references for narrative of the Civil War.

Hale, E. E., "Mrs. Merriam's Scholars."

Gay, "Life in Dixie During the War."

Page, T. N., "Red Rock."

δ. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Stevens, nos. 24, 25, 26, 99-102.

Selected paragraphs from Page, "Red Rock," and from Churchill's "Crisis."

§§ 566-578.
Pp. 408-415.

Questions
for develop-
ing the text.

1. What industrial and economic effects did the Federal blockade have upon the South? 2. What was the object of the blockade runners? Their fate oftentimes? 3. Describe the effect of paper money issues on prices in the South. 4. What risks did a blockade runner take on his sales?

5. Why was the scarcity of salt such a vital matter in the South? 6. How was salt provided? How was metal provided? 7. What food was flavored with Southern patriotism until it was palatable? 8. What were the sacrifices and the makeshifts of the Southern women for clothes, cloths, and bandages? 9. How were shoes provided for men, women, and children? 10. Compare the sufferings and deprivations of the whole South—of men, women, and soldiers—with those of the Continental soldiers at Valley Forge and the Pilgrims at Plymouth. Why were each and all willing to endure such misery?

11. How did a Confederate newspaper look, and how was it welcomed? 12. How did a Southern woman get together materials for writing a letter? 13. Explain the economic and physical exhaustion of which the Confederacy died.

PART VIII. RECONSTRUCTION AND REUNION, 1865-1877

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part viii,
ch. xlii.
Administra-
tion of
Andrew
Johnson,
1865-1869.

General: Rhodes, vol. v, 516-626; vol. vi, 1-257.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 207-219.

Wilson, "American People," vol. v, ch. 1. Foster, "Century of Diplomacy."

Curtis, "Constitutional History," vol. ii, 349-396.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 125-133.

Special: Dunning, "Reconstruction, Political and Economic" (American Nation Series, vol. xxii).

Pendleton, "A. H. Stephens."

Linn, "Horace Greeley."

Hart, "S. P. Chase."

Brown, "Lower South."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 142-144, 145-150, 151-155, 174.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 129-132.

MacDonald, "Documentary Source Book," nos. 141-162.

Caldwell, "Survey," vol. i, 189-193. Smedes, "Southern Planter."

Johnston, "American Orations," vol. iv.

Illustrative: Turgée, "Fool's Errand," "Bricks without Straw."

Page, "Red Rock," "Burial of the Guns."

Johnson, "Arrows of the Almighty."

Burnett, "In Connection with the De Willoughby Claim."
 Thanet, "Expiation." De Forest, "Honest John Vane."
 Glasgow, "Voice of the People." Woodman, "Picturesque Alaska."
 Chestnutt, "Marrow of Tradition."

Part viii,
 ch. xlv.
 Administra-
 tion of
 Andrew
 Johnson,
 1865-1869.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Hart and Stevens, "Romance of Civil War," nos. 24-27.

Trent, "Robert E. Lee."

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," 390-399.

Drake, "Making of the Great West."

1. Why had Andrew Johnson been elected as Vice President in 1864? §§ 579-596.
 2. Would he have had much chance of election as President? 3. What other cases have you studied or known where a man chosen as Vice President had to serve as President? Pp. 416-427.

4. What public military function came early in Johnson's administration? Questions for
 5. Describe it. 6. What was the greatest problem before the country? developing
 7. Why was the Thirteenth Amendment adopted? 8. What method of the text.

reconstruction did the Southern states hope for, and really expect? 9. What had President Lincoln already done toward reorganizing Southern states?

10. Why did President Johnson appoint provisional governors? 11. What did he do about negro suffrage? 12. Describe the social, political, and industrial condition of the freed negroes, contrasting the new with the old state of affairs. 13. What was the object of the vagrancy laws? 14. Why did the North fear them? 15. To what new idea and legislation did this fear lead many of the Republican party?

16. What test was devised for Southern states when they applied for "readmission"? 17. Why could not the President stop this change of plan in reconstruction? 18. Quote the Fourteenth Amendment. 19. What state availed itself of this offer of Congress?

20. What was the plan of reconstruction advocated by Congress? 21. Describe the military rule for the South? 22. How did the whites lose and the negroes gain control in these states? 23. What states joined Tennessee in agreeing to the requirements of Congress? What ones were still "unreconstructed"?

24. How and when was the Fourteenth Amendment adopted? 25. Describe "carpet baggers" and "scalawags" and their work in the South. 26. Why did Congress think these men were safer ones to hold the suffrage than the ones to whom political rights were denied?

27. What new question showed the lack of agreement between President Johnson and Congress? 28. What was the object of the Tenure-of-Office Act? (Teachers might well read to the class this act, found in MacDonald's "Select Statutes," No. 57.) 29. Tell the story of the impeachment of Johnson.

30. How, and by whom, was rapid communication between America and Europe made possible? 31. Name, locate, and bound the thirty-seventh state added to the Union.

Part viii,
ch. xlv.
Administra-
tion of
Andrew
Johnson,
1865-1879.

Part viii,
ch. xlv.
Administra-
tion of Grant,
1869-1877.

32. What was the plan of Napoleon III of France for gaining power in North America? 33. What well-known doctrine did he ignore? 34. What was the outcome of his plan and the fate of Maximilian? 35. Why did the United States purchase Alaska? 36. Did we suspect its value then? 37. Name the candidates in the presidential election of 1868.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Rhodes, vol. vi, 257-440; vol. vii, 1-291.

Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 220-248.

Wilson, "American People," vol. vi, ch. i.

Channing, "Students' History," pp. 569-574.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 134-141.

Andrews, "Last Quarter Century."

Special: Sparks, "National Development" (American Nation Series, vol. xxiii).

Dunning, "Reconstruction, Political and Economic."

Dewey, "Financial History."

Foster, "Century of Diplomacy."

Brown, "Lower South."

Storey, "Charles Sumner."

Pendleton, "A. H. Stephens."

Hart, "S. P. Chase."

Linn, "Horace Greeley."

Wilson, "General Grant."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 155-159, 162, 163, 168, 172, 176.

Hart, "Source Book," nos. 133, 134-135.

"American Annual Encyclopedia," 1869-1877.

McCullough, "Men and Measures."

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 78-102.

Illustrative: Overton, "Heritage of Unrest" (Indians). Jackson, "Ramona."

Wister, "Red Men and White."

Hale, "Mrs. Merriam's Scholars."

Dunbar, "Folks from Dixie."

Harper's Monthly for 1869-1877.

Craddock, "Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountain."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Lane and Hill, pp. 158-160 and 160-161.

Whittier, "The Chicago Fire."

Abbey, "General Grant."

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 399-402, 404-416.

Custer, "Boots and Saddles," "Tenting on the Plains."

Eastman, "Indian Boyhood" (Sicux).

§§ 597-610.
Pp. 427-437.
Questions for
developing
the text.

- Review the life history of Ulysses S. Grant.
- State definitely the underlying and apparent causes of the westward movement of the sixties.
- Why did Congress consider the proposition of national aid to a transcontinental railroad?
- What have you already learned about internal improvements? (See § 400.)
- Describe the building of the Union and the Central Pacific railroads.
- What were the indirect results?

7. How far was the South sharing in the great national prosperity of the country? 8. Describe the work of the Loyal League and the Ku Klux Klan. 9. Why was there so much desperate lawlessness? 10. Up to this time how had the Constitution of the United States left the matter of suffrage?

11. By the Fifteenth Amendment, how was the power of the individual states abridged in regard to granting suffrage? 12. What were the last states to be reconstructed? 13. How long did carpet-bag rule survive?

14. Review the battle between the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama*, and describe the claims which arose from that affair. 15. How were the claims adjusted in 1872? 16. With what terrible loss of property did Chicago and Boston meet in the early seventies?

17. State the political platform of the Liberal Republicans in 1872.

18. Who were their candidates in the presidential election of 1872?

19. What party joined them in the campaign? 20. Who won?

21. There is a theory that bad money or cheap money always drives good money out of circulation. What illustration of this theory did the people of the United States have in the years 1870 to 1873? 22. What remedy did Congress devise? 23. Trace the direct and indirect causes of the financial panic of 1873. 24. Describe greenbacks. 25. What made them irredeemable? 26. What made them redeemable?

27. Was President Grant directly or indirectly responsible for the corruption that was rife in his administration? 28. How did the "Whisky Ring" defraud the government? 29. Compare or contrast, as you think proper, the colonial smuggling and the work of the "Whisky Ring."

30. Why were the Modocs transferred to Indian Territory? 31. What led to the Sioux massacre of General Custer and his men? 32. Was it strange that the Sioux made this war on the whites?

33. What was the object of the Centennial Exposition in 1876? 34. Describe some of the exhibits. 35. What state was admitted to the Union in that centennial year? 36. State definitely the controversy laid before the electoral commission of 1876. 37. Describe the political "make-up" of the commission and state its decision.

Part viii,
ch. xlv.
Administra-
tion of Grant
1869-1877.

PART IX. INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT. 1877-1897

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 249-258.

Wilson, "American People," vol. v, ch. ii.

Andrews, "Last Quarter Century." "Cambridge Modern History," vol. vii.

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 142-143.

Special: Blaine, "Twenty Years."

Dewey, "Financial History."

Noyes, "American Finance."

Wilson, "General Grant."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 159, 160, 169, 177, 197, 203.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 136. MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 103-105.

Appleton, "Annual Encyclopedia," 1877-1881.

Illustrative: Atherton, "Senator North."

Harper's Weekly, 1877-1881, *Harper's Monthly*, 1877-1881.

Scribner's Monthly, 1877-1881.

Part ix,
ch. xlvii.
Administra-
tion of
Rutherford
B. Hayes,
1877-1881.

b. For use of pupils.

Part ix,
ch. xlv.
Administra-
tion of
Rutherford
B. Hayes,
1877-1881.

In class : Thomas, "United States," pp. 416-426.
Optional reading : Lane and Hill, pp. 161-164, and 167-170.

§§ 611-618.
Pp. 438-444.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. Why might the nation expect a wise and an able administration from President Hayes? 2. Why did the President withdraw the troops from South Carolina and Louisiana? 3. Define the "Solid South."
4. Who began the "spoils system" in the United States government?
5. What were its evils? 6. When did the nation become aware of them?
7. Who improved the civil service by using merit rather than "pulls" in deciding upon the claims of candidates for positions?
8. What were some of the results for good and for evil arising from the indirect relations becoming prevalent between employers and laborers?
9. Why did capital combine and organize its interests? Why did labor do the same? 10. What were the demands of the Labor Congress, and of the Labor party in 1870, 1872, and 1876? 11. Define: blacklisting, agitators, capitalist, strike, anarchist, communist. 12. Describe the Pittsburg Riot of 1877 and its cost.
13. Review the demonetization of silver. 14. What was the object of the Coinage Act of 1878, and what were its provisions? 15. Why did people not avail themselves of the opportunity of redeeming their greenbacks?
16. Describe accurately the refunding work of the United States government.
17. What has Thomas Edison added to the civilization of the world?
18. What has James B. Eads done for American commerce?
19. What four parties nominated candidates in the presidential election of 1880? 20. Which one carried the election?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

Part ix,
ch. xlvii.
Administra-
tions of
Garfield and
Arthur,
1881-1885.

General : Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 259-267.

Wilson, "American People," vol. v, ch. ii.

Curtis, "Constitutional History," vol. ii.

Stanwood, "Presidency."

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," § 144.

Special : Latané, "United States and Spanish America."

Stanwood, "American Tariff Controversies."

Taussig, "Tariff History."

Brown, "Lower South."

Sources : Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 161, 198.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 137.

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 106-110.

Appleton, "Annual Cyclopaedia," 1881-1885.

Illustrative : Use Pool's Index on topics of current interest of these years — i.e. "Garfield," "Guiteau," "Civil Service," "President Arthur," and "Tariff." Riis, "Children of the Poor."

b. For use of pupils.

In class : Davidson, "United States," pp. 486-489.
Schurz, "Civil Service Reform" (selections).

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 426-434.
Lane and Hill, pp. 164-166.

1. Why could the country expect much good service from President Garfield?
2. Why did it lose this valued President? 3. Compare his early life, his public services, his reputation, and his death with that of Lincoln. 4. What added anxiety to the country's sadness?

5. Criticise President Arthur's administration. (*To teachers.*—Children should be taught that criticism includes finding the good as well as the bad points, and should be encouraged to criticise in the broadest, truest way.)

6. What lesson had the nation learned from Guiteau's act as assassin?
7. State the duties of the Civil Service Commission.

8. Account for the surplus of United States government funds. 9. When did a similar condition exist? 10. What was done then to relieve it?
11. What was the objection made to reducing the tariff? 12. What action did Congress take?

13. What did Congress do about polygamy? 14. Could it have forbidden the Mormon religious beliefs? 15. When did letter postage become cheaper? Why? 16. What was the need of a "standard time"? How was it secured?

17. Account for the Centennial Exhibition at New Orleans in 1884.
18. State definitely the material resources of the South and the industrial growth of "the New South."

19. Describe the presidential election contest of 1884, naming candidates, parties, platforms, and successful nominees.

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Johnston, "American Politics," pp. 268-279.

Wilson, "American People," vol. vi, ch. ii. Ford, "National Problems."

Wilson, "Division and Reunion," §§ 144, 145-147, 148.

Special: Hart, "Practical Essays." Noyes, "American Finance."

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 164, 165, 204, 205.

Hart, "Source Book," no. 139. MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. III-III.

Appleton, "Annual Cyclopaedia," 1885-1889.

Illustrative: Ford, "Honorable Peter Stirling."

Burnett, "Through One Administration." Norris, "The Octopus."

Merwin and Webber, "Calumet K."

Part ix,
ch. xlvii.
Administra-
tion of
Garfield and
Arthur,
1881-1885.

§§ 619-625.
Pp. 445-450.

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part ix,
ch. xlviii.
First Admin-
istration of
Grover
Cleveland,
1885-1889.

b. For use of pupils.

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 434-442.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 489-493.

1. Why did the Democrats choose Grover Cleveland as their candidate?
2. Why did some former Republicans vote for him? 3. What new arrangement for presidential succession was made by Congress in 1886? 4. Account for the Haymarket Square riots of 1886.

5. Why do Charleston people remember August 31st of 1886? 6. How

§§ 626-631.
Pp. 451-455

Part ix,
ch. xlviii.
First Admin-
istration of
Grover
Cleveland,
1885-1889.

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part ix,
ch. xlix.
Administra-
tion of Ben-
jamin Har-
rison,
1889-1893.

did the nation respond to that city's voiced and unvoiced cries for aid?
7. Why does the Statue of Liberty in New York harbor recall our Revolu-
tionary War?

8. What was the new law concerning the counting of the electoral vote
passed in 1887? 9. What was the need of the Interstate Commerce Act?
Of the Chinese Exclusion Act? 10. What principles and platforms were set at
issue in the presidential campaign of 1888? 11. What party's candidates won?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Wilson, "American People," vol. vi, ch. ii.

Andrews, "Last Quarter Century."

Special: Harrison, Benjamin, "Writings of Benjamin Harrison."

Wallace, "Life of Benjamin Harrison."

Appleton, "Annual Cyclopaedia," 1889-1893.

Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 166, 167, 170, 206.

MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 120-124.

Mullhall's Dictionary of Statistics.

Illustrative: Rayner, "Handicapped among the Free." Foote, "Cœur d'Alene."

Wister, "The Virginian." Luther, "The Henchman."

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Thomas, "United States," pp. 460-471.

Riis, Jacob, "How the Other Half Lives" (selections).

Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," pp. 442-453.

Davidson, "United States," pp. 493-495.

§§ 632-642.
Pp. 456-461.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. What was President Harrison's public record of services up to the year
1889? 2. Account for the crowds gathered on the border line of the "Beau-
tiful Land" on April 22, 1889. 3. What did they do with their new land in
the next ten years? 4. What disaster in May, 1889, called upon the country
to help again in relieving tremendous loss of property and homes?

5. Why did the Pan-American Congress of 1889 mark an advance in civili-
zation? 6. State the object and the effect of the New Pension Act and the
McKinley Tariff. 7. Review the Coinage Act of 1878 and state the terms of
the Coinage Act of 1890. 8. Account for the names: McKinley Tariff
Sherman Silver Act, and People's Party.

9. Into what international trouble did the Mafia affair threaten to plunge
the United States? 10. Trace the growth of our new navy. 11. Name the
states which belonged to our Union in 1890. 12. How far has woman suffrage
been allowed? 13. Where and when did our present network of electric car
lines begin?

14. Out of what elements was the Populist Party made? 15. What were
its demands in the election of 1892? 16. Who were the candidates for that
presidential election? 17. By what device was voting protected that year in
many states?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

- General:** Wilson, "American People," vol. vi, ch. iii.
 Stanwood, "Presidency." "Statesman's Year Book."
 Appleton, "Annual Cyclopaedia."
Special: Latané, "America the World Power."
 Cleveland, "Presidential Problems."
 Brooks, "Life of Grover Cleveland."
 Goodrich, F. E., "Life and Public Services of Cleveland."
 Norton, "President and his Cabinet" (Cleveland).
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 171, 178, 179, 199, 207.
 Hart, "Source Book," no. 145.
 MacDonald, "Documentary Source Book," nos. 181-183.
 Parker, "Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland."
Illustrative: Norris, "The Pit," Webster, "Banker and the Bear."
 Merwin and Webster, "Short Line War."

Part ix, ch. 1.
 Second Administration of Grover Cleveland, 1893-1897

b. For use of pupils.

- In class:** Davidson, "United States," pp. 495-498.
 Cleveland, "Good Citizenship."
Optional reading: Thomas, "United States," 472-478.
 Twombly, "Hawaii and its People."

1. Review, briefly, Grover Cleveland's first administration? 2. For what principles and measures did he stand in 1884 and in 1892? 3. Describe the revolution in Hawaii, and the position of President Harrison and of President Cleveland on the new government.

pp 643-651.
 Pp. 462-468.

4. Why was the Columbian Exposition planned and so thoroughly well carried out? Was it merely to mark and honor an anniversary?

Questions for developing the text.

5. Review the financial panics of 1837 and 1873. What led to each?

6. What caused the panic of 1893? 7. What resulted from this panic?

8. What steps did President Cleveland and Congress take to reinstate business credit? 9. What other programme was proposed by the bimetallicists?

10. What two causes in the South and West made "hard times" continue?

11. What put the United States government into poor financial condition?

12. What new object of taxation was found in the Wilson Tariff of 1894?

13. What trouble did the Pullman strike of 1894 make for all the West?

14. On what constitutional grounds did President Cleveland interfere? 15.

Compare the loss occasioned by this strike with that caused by the earthquake at Charleston. 16. Could the former have been avoided or averted?

17. What was the object and the result of arbitration over the Behring Sea fisheries? 18. What was the object and the result of arbitration over the Venezuela boundary? 19. When was the forty-fifth state added to the Union? What was it? 20. What was President Cleveland's attitude and record on the civil service question?

21. What was the main issue in the presidential election of 1896? 22. Name the seven parties which had platforms and candidates for this election.

23. Who won? Why?

PART X. TERRITORIAL EXPANSION, 1897-

References : a. For use of teachers.

- Part x, ch. li. *General*: Semple, "Geographic Conditions," pp. 397-435.
 Administration of Wilson, "American People," vol. v, ch. iii, 269-300.
 William Cambridge, "Modern History," vol. vii, 674-686.
 McKinley, Larned, "History for Ready Reference," vol. vi, 65, 171, 225, 258, 367, 583
 '897-1901. *Special*: Latané, "America the World Power," "United States and Spanish America."
 Titherington, "Spanish-American War."
 Dewey, "Financial History," §§ 197-202.
 Callahan, "Cuba," 453-497. Brooks, "War with Spain."
 Maclay, "United States Navy," vol. iii, 39-440.
Sources: Hart, "Contemporaries," vol. iv, nos. 176, 180-196, 200-202, 208, 209.
 Hart, "Source Book," nos. 140-144.
 MacDonald, "Select Statutes," nos. 128-131.
 Caldwell, "Territorial Development," 213-255.
Illustrative: F. P. Dunne, "Mr. Dooley in Peace and War."
 Kennan, "Campaigning in Cuba."
 Roosevelt, "The Rough Riders."
 Davis, "Cuban and Porto Rican Campaigns."
 Crane, "Wounds in the Rain."
 Harper's "Pictorial History of the War with Spain."
Collier's Weekly, Century, McClure's.

b. For use of pupils.

- In class*: Thomas, "United States," pp. 479-483.
 Selections from teacher's references.
Optional reading: Abbot, "Naval History of the United States."
 Thomas, "United States," pp. 483-503.
 Lane and Hill, pp. 171-172, 173-174.
 Otis, "Boys of '98," "The Armed Ship of America."
 Johnson, "The Hero of Manila."

§§ 652-672.
 Pp. 469-483.

Questions for
 developing
 the text.

1. With what previous record of public service did William McKinley become President of the United States? 2. What grave problem presented itself to him in his first years of administration? 3. Give a brief history of the Cuban War for Independence. 4. Trace and state carefully the cause and the occasion of the Spanish War.

5. What did President McKinley do to avert the Spanish War? 6. Quote his message to Congress when Spain refused to grant independence to Cuba. 7. State the four resolutions of Congress. 8. What was Spain's response to this ultimatum? 9. How was an adequate American army raised? 10. Give an interesting detailed account of our navy's splendid work in Manila Harbor.

11. What was the object of blockading Havana? 12. What Spanish Admiral sailed with a fleet to American waters? 13. What famous ship was

in danger from him and his fleet? 14. Where did the Spanish fleet anchor, and what action did Admiral Sampson and Commodore Schley take?

15. Why has Hobson been considered a hero? 16. Was his mission successful? 17. Give the details of the land battle of Santiago. 18. What brought about the naval battle of Santiago? 19. What was its result?

20. Why did not General Miles complete his invasion of Porto Rico? 21. What is a protocol? 22. Did the battle at Manila violate the Spanish-American protocol?

23. State the terms of the treaty of peace. 24. Make an inventory of the new possessions of the United States.

25. Why and when were the Hawaiian Islands annexed to the United States? State briefly their earlier relations with the United States.

26. Make maps of the two hemispheres and place all the new island possessions of the United States. Would Cuba be among them?

27. What were the gains and the losses occasioned by the Spanish War?

28. What objections have been made to the expansion of United States territory, and the new policies demanded by it in the United States government? 29. Define the terms: imperialists, expansionists, anti-imperialists.

30. Why have the Samoan Islands been added to our possessions?

31. What trouble did Aguinaldo and his insurgents make for the United States government? 32. What disaster repeated the suffering and the generous aid known at the time of the Charleston earthquake and the Johnstown flood?

33. Name two important acts of Congress during McKinley's administration. 34. What two issues were chief in the presidential election of 1900? 35. Why was William McKinley reelected? 36. What was his fate?

References:

a. For use of teachers.

General: Bruce, "Rise of New South."

Münsterberg, "American Traits."

"Cambridge Modern History," vol. vii, pp. 723-751.

Special: Outlook for 1901-1908.

Latané, "The United States as a World Power."

Colquhoun, "Greater America," pp. 147-170.

Hart, "Foundations of American Foreign Policy."

Flint, "The World of Graft."

Eliot, "American Contributions to Civilization."

Sources: Congressional Record.

Review of Reviews.

World's Work.

Illustrative: Steffens, "Shame of the Cities."

Current Literature.

Part x, ch. lii.

Administra-

tion of

Theodore

Roosevelt,

1901-1909.

b. For use of pupils.

In class: Davidson, "United States," pp. 507-520.

Lane and Hill, pp. 175-177.

Optional reading: Davidson, "United States," pp. 505-506.

Part x, ch. lii.
Administra-
tion of
Theodore
Roosevelt,
1901-1909.

§§ 673-684.
Pp. 485-491.

Questions for
developing
the text.

1. In what ways had Theodore Roosevelt been trained for his work as President of the United States?

2. What political, civil, and military services had he performed for his city, state, and country before 1900? 3. Why were the United States troops kept in Cuba until the year 1902? 4. Was it in violation of our pledges or inconsistent with them?

5. What are the objects and methods of trusts? 6. What remedies for individual warfare between capitalists and laborers have been proposed?

7. How did President Roosevelt end the great coal strike of 1902?

8. What suffering had this quarrel over wages and hours caused throughout the country? 9. What other hard times afflicted parts of the country during the first years of this twentieth century?

10. Compare the Baltimore fire of 1904 with the Chicago and Boston fires of the early seventies. 11. Give the details of the effects of the San Francisco earthquake. 12. Explain an invention made for increasing means of communication. 13. What arguments led the United States government to complete and control the Panama Canal? 14. How and why did Panama become an independent republic?

15. What was the occasion, the object, and the result of the St. Louis Fair of 1904? 16. Why were our federal troops returned to Cuba in 1906? Was this a permanent or merely temporary measure? 17. What was the "baby state" of our Union in 1907? 18. Who was elected President in 1908?

19. Why did our troops evacuate Cuba for the second time? 20. What growth in population did the census of 1910 show? 21. Explain the benefits derived from the postal savings bank and the parcel post. 22. What states were admitted into the Union in 1912 and why is their admission especially significant? 23. Who was elected President in 1912?

24. What important legislation was enacted at the beginning of President Wilson's term? 25. Why was the semi-centennial of the battle of Gettysburg celebrated? 26. Tell about our trouble with Mexico. 27. Explain why the completion of the Panama Canal means so much to commerce and describe the Panama Exposition. 28. What responsibility and privileges has every American citizen in the future of his country?

Part x, ch. lii.
Administra-
tion of Wil-
liam H. Taft,
1909-1913.

§§ 686-690.

Questions for
developing
the text.

Part x, ch. liv.
Administra-
tion of Wood-
row Wilson,
1913-.

§§ 691-694.

Questions for
developing
the text.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.¹

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WHEN in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object

¹ The original copy of the Declaration of Independence, which was signed at Philadelphia, is kept at the Department of State, Washington, District of Columbia. The writing is much faded, and some of the signatures have nearly disappeared.

The arrangement of paragraphs here adopted follows the copy in the Journals of Congress, printed by John Dunlap, which agrees with Jefferson's original draft. No names of states appear in the original, though the names of each state are together, except that the signature of Matthew Thornton New Hampshire, follows that of Oliver Wolcott, Connecticut.

evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies ; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained ; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise ; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States ; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harrass our People, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our Consent:

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free People.

Nor have We been wanting in attention to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the Protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

JOSIAH BARTLETT,
WM. WHIPPLE,
MATTHEW THORNTON.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

SAML. ADAMS,
JOHN ADAMS,
ROBT. TREAT PAINE,
ELBRIDGE GERRY.

RHODE ISLAND.

STEP. HOPKINS,
WILLIAM ELLERY.

CONNECTICUT.

ROGER SHERMAN,
SAM'EL HUNTINGTON,
WM. WILLIAMS,
OLIVER WOLCOTT.

NEW YORK.

WM. FLOYD,
PHIL. LIVINGSTON,
FRANS. LEWIS,
LEWIS MORRIS

NEW JERSEY.

RICHD. STOCKTON,
JNO. WITHERSPOON,
FRAS. HOPKINSON,
JOHN HART,
ABRA. CLARK.

PENNSYLVANIA.

ROBT. MORRIS,
BENJAMIN RUSH,
BENJA. FRANKLIN,
JOHN MORTON,
GEO. CLYMER,
JAS. SMITH,
GEO. TAYLOR,
JAMES WILSON,
GEO. ROSS.

DELAWARE.

CÆSAR RODNEY,
GEO. READ,
THO. M'KEAN.

MARYLAND.

SAMUEL CHASE,
WM. PACA,

THOS. STONE,
CHARLES CARROLL of Carroll-
ton.

VIRGINIA.

GEORGE WYTHE,
RICHARD HENRY LEE,
TH. JEFFERSON,
BENJA. HARRISON,
THOS. NELSON, JR.,
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE,
CARTER BRAXTON.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WM. HOOPER,
JOSEPH HEWES,
JOHN PENN.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE,
THOS. HEYWARD, JUNR.,
THOMAS LYNCH, JUNR.,
ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

GEORGIA.

BUTTON GWINNETT,
LYMAN HALL,
GEO. WALTON.

APPENDIX II

[THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.]¹

WE THE PEOPLE of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE. I.

SECTION. 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION. 2. [1] The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

[2] No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

[3] Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers,² [which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of

¹ This text of the Constitution has been printed from the copy issued by the United States Department of State which bears the indorsement, "Compared with the original in the Department of State, April 13, 1891, and found to be correct." Those parts of the document in brackets [] are not in the original, or have been modified or superseded by amendments, or were temporary in their character.

² The apportionment under the census of 1900 is one representative to every 193,291.

Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons].¹ The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative ; [and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.]

[4] When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

[5] The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker² and other Officers ; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

SECTION. 3. [1] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years ; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

[2] Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year ; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

[3] No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

[4] The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

[5] The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

[6] The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside : And

¹ The clause in brackets has been superseded by the thirteenth and fourteenth amendments.

² The Speaker is always one of the representatives ; the other officers are not

no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

[7] Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

SECTION. 4. [1] The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.

[2] The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

SECTION. 5. [1] Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

[2] Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

[3] Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

[4] Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION. 6. [1] The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation¹ for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

[2] No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United

¹ At present (1904) this is "\$5000 per annum, with \$125 annual allowance for stationery and newspapers, and a mileage allowance of twenty cents per mile of travel each way from their homes at each annual session."

States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been encreased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

SECTION. 7. [1] All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

[2] Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

[3] Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

SECTION. 8. [1] The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

[2] To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

[3] To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

[4] To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

[5] To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

[6] To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

- [7] To establish Post Offices and post Roads ;
- [8] To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries ,
- [9] To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court ;
- [10] To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations ;
- [11] To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water ;
- [12] To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years ;
- [13] To provide and maintain a Navy ;
- [14] To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces ;
- [15] To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions ;
- [16] To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;
- [17] To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings ; — And
- [18] To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

SECTION. 9. [1] [The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.]¹

[2] The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

[3] No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

¹ A temporary clause no longer in force.

[4] No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

[5] No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

[6] No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

[7] No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

[8] No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.¹

SECTION. 10. [1] No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

[2] No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

[3] No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.²

ARTICLE. II.

SECTION. 1. [1] The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows

[2] Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators

¹ The personal rights enumerated in Section 9, have been added to, and extended by, Amendments I.-X.

² The provisions of Section 10 have been modified and extended by Amendments XIII.-XV.

and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

[3] [The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice President.]¹

[4] The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

[5] No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

[6] In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the Same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

¹ This clause has been superseded by Amendment XII.

[7] The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be encreased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

[8] Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation : — “ I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION. 2. [1] The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States ; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

[2] He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur ; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law : but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

[3] The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

SECTION. 3. [1] He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient ; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper ; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers ; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

SECTION. 4. [1] The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

ARTICLE. III.

SECTION. 1. [1] The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behaviour, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in Office.

SECTION. 2. [1] The judicial Power shall extend to all cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority ; — to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls ; — to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction ; — to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party ; — to Controversies between two or more States ; — between a State and Citizens of another State ;¹ between Citizens of different States, — between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

[2] In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

[3] The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury ; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed ; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

SECTION. 3. [1] Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

ARTICLE. IV.

SECTION. 1. [1] Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And

¹ Modified by Amendment XI.

the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

SECTION. 2. [1] The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.¹

[2] A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

[3] [No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.] ²

SECTION. 3. [1] New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union ; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State ; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States ; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION. 4. [1] The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion ; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

ARTICLE. V.

[1] The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress ; Provided that [no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article ; and that] ³ no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of it's equal Suffrage in the Senate.

¹ Provisions extended by Amendment XIV.

² Superseded by Amendment XIII.

³ Temporary in its nature.

ARTICLE. VI.

[1] All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

[2] This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

[3] The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

ARTICLE. VII.

[1] The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

The Word, "the", being interlined between the seventh and eighth Lines of the first Page, The Word "Thirty" being partly written on an Erasure in the fifteenth Line of the first Page, The Words "is tried" being interlined between the thirty second and thirty third Lines of the first Page and the Word "the" being interlined between the forty third and forty fourth Lines of the second Page.

[NOTE BY PRINTER. — The interlined and rewritten words, mentioned in the above explanation, are in this edition, printed in their proper places in the text.]

DONE in Convention by the Unanimous Consent
of the States present the Seventeenth Day of
September in the Year of our Lord one thousand
seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the
Independance of the United States of America
the Twelfth In Witness whereof We have
hereunto subscribed our Names,

GO: WASHINGTON — *Presidt.*

and deputy from Virginia

Attest WILLIAM JACKSON *Secretary*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

MASSACHUSETTS.

NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

CONNECTICUT.

WM: SAM'L. JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY.

WIL: LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY.
WM. PATERSON.
JONA: DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA.

B FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBT. MORRIS
GEO. CLYMER
THOS. FITZ SIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUV MORRIS

DELAWARE.

GEO: READ
GUNNING BEDFORD jun
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACO: BROOM

MARYLAND.

JAMES MCHENRY
DAN OF ST THOS. JENIFER
DANL CARROLL

VIRGINIA.

JOHN BLAIR—
JAMES MADISON Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WM: BLOUNT
RICHD. DOBBS SPAIGHT.
HU WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA.

J. RUTLEDGE
CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER.

GEORGIA.

WILLIAM FEW
ABR BALDWIN

ARTICLES

in Addition to, and Amendment of the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress and ratified by the Legislatures of the Several States, pursuant to the Fifth Article of the Constitution.

[ARTICLE I.]

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof ; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press ; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

[ARTICLE II.]

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

[ARTICLE III.]

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

[ARTICLE IV.]

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

[ARTICLE V.]

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger ; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb ; nor shall be compelled in any Criminal Case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law ; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

[ARTICLE VI.]

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the

crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining Witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

[ARTICLE VII.]

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

[ARTICLE VIII.]

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

[ARTICLE IX.]

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

[ARTICLE X.]¹

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

[ARTICLE XI.]²

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

[ARTICLE XII.]³

The Electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number

¹ Amendments I.-X. were proclaimed to be in force December 15, 1791.

² Proclaimed to be in force January 8, 1798.

³ Proclaimed to be in force September 25, 1804.

of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate ;— The President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted ;— The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed ; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote ; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President ; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

[ARTICLE XIII.]¹

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

[ARTICLE XIV.]²

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States ; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without

¹ Proclaimed to be in force December 18, 1865.

² Proclaimed to be in force July 28, 1868.

due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the Executive and Judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss of emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

[ARTICLE XV.]¹

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

¹ Proclaimed to be in force March 30, 1870.

[ARTICLE XVI.]¹

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

[ARTICLE XVII.]²

SECTION 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

SECTION 2. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided that the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

SECTION 3. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

[ARTICLE XVIII.]

SECTION 1. After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from, the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

SECTION 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SECTION 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided by the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress. [Adopted in 1919.]

¹ Proclaimed to be in force February 25, 1913.

² Proclaimed to be in force May 14, 1913.

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PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Key to Symbols

ā as in bāy,	ē as in hēr,
ă as in băt,	ē as in they,
â as in bâre,	ī as in pie,
ä as in färm,	ĩ as in bīt,
ạ as in solặc,	ō as in gō,
à as in cask,	ố as in gốt,
ạ as in walk,	ô as in côn,
ē as in bē,	ōō as in mōon,
ě as in bět,	ū as in tūne,
ê as in thêre,	ũ as in bŭt.

ẹ represents a sound similar to, but shorter than, short u — sometimes almost silent.

ġ hard as in ġet.

ñ as in ñk, hunger.

ow has the sound of ow in how.

Acadia, a-kā'dī-a

Alamo, ă'lă-mō

Algiers, ăl-jěr'z'

Algonkin, ăl-gŏn'kĩn

André, ăn'dră or ăn'drĩ

Andros, ăn'dros

Annapolis, ăn-năp'o-lĩs

Antietam, ăn-tē'tam

Ayllon, Lucas Vasques de,

loo-kas văs'kěth dă il-yŏn'

Bahama, ba-hă'ma

Balboa, băl-bŏ'ă

Beauregard, bŏ'rẹ-gard'

Bienville, bē'ăn-věl'

Biloxi, bĩl-ŏx'ĩ

Bon Homme Richard,

bo-nom' rē-shărr'

Breton, brět'on

Buena Vista, bwă'nă vės'tă

Cabot, kăb'ot

Calvert, kăl'vert

Canon, kăn'yŭn

Carteret, kăr'ter-et

Cartier, kăr'tyă'

Cerro Gordo, sěr'rŏ gŏr'dŏ

Cervera, thăr-vă'ră

ChAMPLAIN, shăm'plān'	Houston, hū'ston
Chippewa, chip'pe-wā	Huguenot, hū'gē-nōt
Cibola, sē'bō-lā	
Coligny, Gaspard de,	Iberville, ē-ber-vēl'
gās-pārr də ko-lēn'yē	Iroquois, īr-ō-kwoi'
Concord, kōŋk'urd	
"Conway Cabal," kōn'wā kā-bāl'	Jesuit, jěz'ū-īt
Coronado, ko-ro-nā'tho	Joliet, zho'le-ā'
Corsair, kōr'sār	
	Kosciuszko, kos-sī-us'ko
De Grasse, də grās'	
De Kalb, də kāl'b'	La Espagnola, lä es-pän-yō'lä
De Monts, Pierre du Gust,	La Fayette, lä'fä'yēt'
pÿ-ayr' du Gust də mon'	La Salle, Robert de,
De Narvaez, Panfilo,	ro'bairr də lä sāl'
pan-fī'lo də nar-vä'ēth	Laudonnière, Rene de,
D'Estaing, dēs'tāŋ'	rē-nā' də lõ'do'ne-ēr'
De Vaca, Cabeza,	Leisler, lis'ler
kä-bā'thā da vā'kā	
Duquesne, du'kān'	Mafia, mǎ-fē'ǎ
	Magellan, ma-jěl'an
El Caney, el kā'nā	Manila, ma-nī'la
Eric, ēr'ik	Marconi, mār-kō'nē
Ericson, ēr'ik-son	Marquette, mār'kēt'
	Massasoit, mās'sa-soit'
Farragut, fār'a-gūt	Menendez de Aviles, Pedro,
Frémont, fré-mōnt'	Pe'drō mə-nēn'deth də ä-vee'lēs
	Minuit, min'u-it
Genet, zhe-nā'	Monocacy, mō-nok'a-si
Genoa, jěn'o-a	Monterey, mōn-tē-rā'
Goliad, gō'li-ād'	Moultrie, mool'trī
Gomez, go'mess	
Gorges, gōr'jēz	New Orleans, nū ôr'le-anz
Gosnold, gos'nold	Nina, nēn'yā
Gourges, Dominique de,	
do'me'nēk' də gōorg	Oglethorpe, ō'g'l-thorpe
Guam, gwām	Oklahoma, ō-klä-hō'ma
Guiana, gē-ä'nā	Osceola, os-se-ō'la
Hawaii, hā-wī'ē	Palo Alto, pä'lō äl'tō
Hayti, hā'tī	Palos, pä'lōs

Pamlico, păm'/lī-kō
 Pascua Florida, päs-cwä flör'/ī-da
 Pequot, pē'kwot
 Philippine, fil'ip-in
 Pineda, Alvarez de,
 al-vā-reth də pē-nā'thā

Pinta, pēn'tā
 Pitcairn, pīt'kârn
 Pocahontas, po-ka-hôn'tas
 Ponce de Leon, pôn'thə də lə-ôn'
 Pontiac, pôn'ti-ak
 Porto Rico, pör'tō rē'kō
 Powhatan, pow-ha-tăn'
 Prevost, pre-vō'
 Pueblo, pwēb'lō
 Pulaski, pū-lās'kē

Raleigh, raw'lī
 Resaca de la Palma,
 ra-sä'/kä də lä päl'mä
 Ribault, Jean, zhôn re'bō'
 Roosevelt, rōz'ē-vēlt
 Rosecrans, rō'ze-kränss

Samoa, sä-mō'ä
 San Juan, sän hōō-än'
 Santa Maria, sän'tä mä-rē'ä
 Santiago, sän-tē-ä'gō
 Santo Domingo, sän'tō dō-mēn'gō
 Schley, slī
 Schofield, skō'fēld
 Schuyler, ski'ler
 Serapis, se-rā'pis

Sevier, se-vēr'
 Seville, sē-vīl'
 Seward, sū'ard
 Shaftesbury, shafts'ber-ī
 Sioux, sōō
 Slidell, sli-dēl'
 Steuben, stū'ben
 Stuyvesant, sti've-sant

Tarleton, tärl'ton
 Tecumseh, tē-kūm'seh
 Ticonderoga, ti-kōn'der-ō'gā
 Tippecanoe, tīp'ē-ka-nōō
 Tishomingo, tish'o-mīn'gō
 Tomochichi, tom'o-chē-chī
 Tripoli, trīp'ō-lī
 Tuscarora, tus'ka-rō'ra

Valladolid, väl-yä-thō-lēth'
 Van Rensselaer, vān rens'sē-ler
 Venezuela, vēr'ē-zwē'la
 Verrazano, Giovanni da,
 jo-vän'nee də vēr-rä-tsä'no
 Vespucci, Amerigo,
 ä-mä-ree'go vēs-poot'chee
 Vincennes, vīn-sēnz'

Wampum, wōm'pūm
 Watauga, wä-tə'gā
 Whitefield, whit'fēld
 Wilmot, wīl'mot

Yeardley, yērd'lī



